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ABSTRACT

This collection from the First International Conference on Counseling presents a collection of papers delivered on emerging counseling issues in Asian countries and the United States. The tremendous impact on peoples' lives of the cultural, political, and economic changes in these countries has created numerous issues that impact the counseling profession. The papers included in this symposium address ways in which these changes have affected peoples lives, as well as how the interconnecting of these cultures has changed lives. Some specific issues emerging from these changes include topics of aging, changing roles of women, career counseling, abuse, educational reform, technology, and cultural, political and economic development. All conference presentations are included. The 21 papers include: (1) "Personality Fitness Training for Youth" (J. Hart, R. Revheim); (2) "Direction of Guidance Work in Hong Kong Primary Schools" (T. W. Mak); (3) "Reform in China: A Comparison of Career Needs of Chinese and Canadian Middle School Students" (H. France); and (4) "Effect of Pre-Arrival Variables on Initial Adaptation of Taiwan Foreign Students to the U.S." (Y. Ying, L.H. Liese). (JDM)

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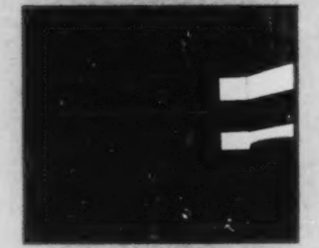

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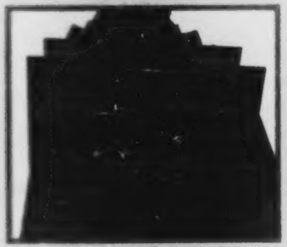

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COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

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December 28 – 30, 1989
Regal Meridien Hotel, Hong Kong

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HONG KONG INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

1989

COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

December 29

8:15– 9:00	Luxembourgh Foyer	**Morning Registration** **Opening Address** Charles K. KAO, Vice Chancellor, The Chinese University of Hong Kong
9:00– 9:30	Luxembourgh	**Welcome by Professors** Benjamin Y. CHAN, School of Education, The Chinese University of Hong Kong Yoshiya KURATO, Naruto University of Education William EVRAIFF, San Francisco State University **Introduction of participants**
9:30– 9:55	Versailles Foyer	**Tea Reception**
10:00–10:30	Montparnesse I	1. "Personality Fitness Training for Youth" *Chair:* Amy HITTNER *Presenters:* John HART, Richard REVHEIM
	Montparnesse II	2. "The Challenge of American Lifestyle to Asian Women" *Chair:* Edna INGRAM *Presenter:* Maria DE LA ROSA
	Montparnesse III	3. "Direction of Guidance Work in Hong Kong Primary Schools" *Chair:* Peter TAM *Presenter:* T. W. MAK
10:40–11:10	Montparnesse I	4. "The Rorschach: Culture-Fair, or Culture Biased?" *Chair:* Don HAYS *Presenter:* Melinda WARNER
	Montparnesse II	5. "Women's Changing Roles and Stress: Pathways To More Effective Living" *Chair:* Elizabeth VAN DALSEM *Presenter:* Coleen GEE
	Montparnesse III	6. "Counseling the Military in an Asian Culture" *Chair:* T. W. MAK *Presenter:* Darryl LARAMORE
11:20–12:00	Montparnesse I	7. "Cross Cultural Comparisons of Communication Styles" *Chair:* Jack CLARKE *Presenters:* Roger CUMMINGS, Mariko TANAKA, Satoru NISHIZAWA
	Montparnesse II	8. "Adolescent Drug Users in Hong Kong" *Chair:* Joyce LAI MA Lai-Chong *Presenters:* Elsie HO, Martin W. H. YEUNG, C. W. AU-YEUNG, T. M. CHAN
	Montparnesse III	9. "TA as a Conceptual Framework for Counseling" *Chair:* Gary BRENDEL *Presenter:* Jessica LEONG
12:00–13:30	Luxembourgh	**Luncheon** *Introduction:* William EVRAIFF *Speaker:* Chai-Wei WOO, President, The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology "Hong Kong in the 21st Century"
13:40–14:10	Montparnesse I	10. "Guidance Work in Hong Kong Secondary Schools" *Chair:* H. W. LEUNG *Presenter:* Peter TAM
	Montparnesse II	11. "Reform in China: A Comparison of Career Needs of Chinese and Canadian Middle School-Students" *Chair:* Lilian CHAN *Presenter:* Honoré FRANCE
	Montparnesse III	12. "Conflict of Culture Among Asian Women Who Have Migrated to The United States in Urban Environment." *Chair:* Elizabeth VAN DALSEM *Presenter:* Premila VYAS
14:20–14:50	Montparnesse I	13. "The Changing Role of Women in Hong Kong and Its Implications for Counseling" *Chair:* LAM Man Ping *Presenter:* Joyce LAI MA Lai Chong
	Montparnesse II	14. "Behavioural Approaches in a Non-Western School System: Hong Kong Research" *Author:* S. J. WINTER *Chair:* Ella LI *Discussant:* Betty YAU
	Montparnesse III	15. "Promoting Excellence in Counseling: The Mission of CSI" *Chair:* Amy HITTNER *Discussant:* William EVRAIFF
14:50–15:15	Montparnesse IV	**Tea Break**
15:15–15:50	Montparnesse I	16. "Counseling in the 21st Century: A Relativistic Look" *Chair:* Jack CLARKE *Presenter:* Yoshiya KURATO
	Montparnesse II	17. "The Career Fitness Program: Exercising Your Options" *Chair:* Alvin RANDOLPH *Presenter:* Lisa RAUFMAN
	Montparnesse III	18. "Effect of Pre-Arrival Variables on Initial Adaptation of Taiwan Foreign Students to the U.S. *Chair:* Wu-Tien WU *Presenters:* Yu-Wen YING, Lawrence H. LIESE
16:00–16:45	Montparnesse I	19. "A Wounded Society: Abuse and Addiction in the United States" *Chair:* Reese HOUSE *Presenters:* Marolyn WELLS & Susan KATRIN
	Montparnesse II	20. "The Future of Technology in Counseling" *Chair:* Francis THOMAS *Presenters:* Alice NEMON, "Disabled Persons, Technology and Computers" Roger CUMMINGS, "Computer Advances"
	Montparnesse III	21. "Structural Cognitive Modifiability: A New Cognitive Perspective for Counseling and Psychotherapy" *Chair:* Wu-Tien WU *Presenter:* Louis FALIK

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ABOUT THE AUTHORS

John L. Hart, Ph.D., is Director of I.S.P.I.

He is a practicing psychotherapist with over 18 years of professional counseling and consulting experience. An adjunct faculty member of University of Redlands Health Science Program, Dr. Hart is particularly interested in the research areas of stress-resilience, self esteem and sport psychology. He is responsible for the design and development of Personality Fitness for Children and Youth® and is working on a new book entitled **The Personally Intelligent Child**.

Richard D. Revheim is Director of Psychological Services for the Tulare Joint Union High School District.

He is an Educational Consultant/Instructor for Teacher Effectiveness Training Programs, and a 5 year I/D/E/A Kettering Fellow. He has successfully developed Cross-age Teaching, Peer Counseling, Group Counseling, Dropout Prevention, Drug Intervention and other motivational programs for schools. His most current writing was a co-author with Dr. John L. Hart in **Personality Fitness Training For Youth: An Experiential Skill Training Manual.**

BASIC SESSIONS TAUGHT

- PERSONALITY FITNESS TRAINING BASIC CONCEPTS
- FOUR PRINCIPLES OF PERSONALITY FITNESS
- YOUR PERSONALITY
- YOUR PERSONALITY IMAGE
- HOW YOUR PERSONALITY IMAGE IS CREATED
- BRINGING YOUR INNER AND OUTER SELVES TOGETHER
- THE WAY YOU TALK - YOUR EXPRESSIVE STYLE
- EXERCISING YOUR EXPRESSIVE STYLE
- EXPANDING YOUR EXPRESSIVE STYLE
- EXPRESSING YOUR POSITIVE QUALITIES
- THE WAY YOU MOVE - YOUR ACTIVITY STYLE
- EXERCISING YOUR ACTIVITY STYLE
- EXPANDING YOUR ACTIVITY STYLE
- MOVING WITH CONFIDENCE
- THE WAY YOU THINK - YOUR CLARITY STYLE
- EXERCISING YOUR CLARITY STYLE
- EXPANDING YOUR CLARITY STYLE
- PUTTING CLARITY TO WORK
- THE WAY YOU FEEL - YOUR FEELING STYLE
- EXERCISING YOUR FEELING STYLE
- EXPANDING YOUR FEELING STYLE
- FEELING = SENSATION + MEANING + EXPRESSION
- THE WAY YOU ACT - YOUR CONTACT STYLE
- EXERCISING YOUR EYE CONTACT
- EXERCISING YOUR PHYSICAL CONTACT
- EXERCISING YOUR EMOTIONAL CONTACT
- EXERCISING YOUR COMPLETE CONTACT STYLE
- BEING THE BEST POSSIBLE YOU
- YOU CAN BE THE STAR OF YOUR LIFE

WHY PERSONALITY FITNESS TRAINING

AN OVERVIEW

If Charles Dickens were alive today to write a book about American children and youth, he might be quite correct in concluding that these "are the worst of times." Murder and suicide is now the second leading cause of death amount 15 - 24 year olds, and there has been a 300% increase in adolescent suicide since 1955. Mental hospital admission rates for children have been steadily on the increase (Segal, 1971). Commitments to the California Youth Authority have more than doubled since 1970, and drug and alcohol are serious problems. The popular media have given considerable attention to the deplorable state of public school education and the continually declining achievement scores of children and youth.

THE OX-CART APPROACH

Typical responses to the conditions cited above are clamoring for a return to the "basic", a return to good old fashioned values of the family, and a demand for new funds for rehabilitation and training and therapy for our troubled children. It seems evident, however, that while those are good intentions, they are not the whole answer. Something else is wrong. The above symptoms are indications that something more basic than reading, writing and arithmetic have gone awry. Hoping that a return to basics will prepare children for life in the 1990's is akin to dropping driver education and opting for courses in horseshoeing and blacksmithing. Childhood today is a stressful and competitive experience. Children are frequently either with too few parents in the case of single parent homes, or too many parents in multiple parent homes. The emphasis on individualism and competition filters down to enormous pressure just to enter the elite junior high, grade schools and even nursery schools. In light of these kinds of situa-

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tional stresses, our existing programs are oriented towards correction and therapy only for those who break down under the strain. This fact would be laughable if it weren't so tragic. "If our knowledge of agriculture and animal rearing were as meager, or as poorly used, as our knowledge of childrearing and social rehabilitation, we would still be using wooden plows and ox-carts (Lippitt, 1973)." It seems clearly time to abandon the ox-cart perspective or rehabilitation. The facts are that while the earlier cited woes were occurring amount children, a remark able $11 billion was being spent on childrens' programs. The California Office of Statewide Health Planning and Development identified "the biggest mistake" in all the current programs as being the emphasis on treatment and corrections rather than prevention.

AN ALTERNATIVE VIEW

An alternative view can be illustrated by the Project of Human Potential at Harvard University. The project was sponsored by the Bernard Van Leer Foundation which had become concerned with problems in supporting innovative education for the disadvantaged. As a result, a group of scholars at Harvard have been exploring the nature and realization of human potential. One of the results of that work is a new perspective on intelligence espoused by Howard Gardner. He has generated an alternative model of the explanation of intelligence which he terms the theory of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983). For our purposes, his views on the personal intelligences is most related to Personality Fitness Training.

THE PERSONAL INTELLIGENCES

In his discussion, Gardner separates the personal intelligences into two distinct kinds of knowing—two distinct kinds of emotional and psychological skills. "On the one side, there is the development of the internal aspects of a person. The core capacity here is access to one's own feeling life - one's range of affects or emotions: the capacity instantly to effect discriminations amount those feelings and eventually, to label them, amesh them in symbolic codes to draw upon them as a means of understanding and guiding one's behavior. The other personal intelligence turns outward, to other individuals. The core capacity here is the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals and in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions (Gardner, 1983, p. 239)." Gardner and his colleagues in the Harvard Project provide a genuine conceptual alternative in explaining the cause of the grave problems exhibited by our children. Perhaps we are not educating them. It is our view that the education of the personal intelligences is seriously lacking in the educational curriculum, and the lack of attention to the crucial personal intelligences sets the stage for the myriad of bio-psycho-social problems our children develop.

THE SENSE OF SELF

A sense of self is one of the developmental consequences of the fusion of the inter and intra personal intelligences. According to Gardner it is "the balance struck by every individual - and every culture - between the promptings of (inner feelings) and the pressures of 'other persons' (Gardner, 1983, p. 242)." "A developed sense of self often appears as the highest achievement of human being, a crowning capacity which supersedes the presides over other more mundane and partial forms of intelligence (Gardner, 1983, p. 243)."

The emergence, then, of a developed personal intelligence and positive sense of self cannot be over estimated. In our society, the school is for the greater part of the child's life, the crucial arena for the development of one's intelligences. For most kinds of intelligence, for example mathematics, music or linguistics, there is the systematic education and development and enhancement of abilities and skills. That the personal intelligences, which it is becoming increasingly clear, have the greatest influence upon personal happiness, performance and

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success, could be left to chance to develop seems somehow grossly negligent in light of this new perspective on intelligence and human potential.

PERSONALITY FITNESS IS LIKE PHYSICAL FITNESS

The simplest way to understand Personality Fitness it to think of it in terms of physical fitness. Just as the body needs to be systematically trained and regularly exercised to be in good condition, so does the personality need to be trained and exercised to develop its potential. What aerobics and calisthenics do for the body, psychological exercise can do for the mind. Just as we exercise to become physically stronger and healthier, we can hone our mental skills to become psychologically more flexible and resilient. Personality Fitness Training is a way to educate and coach students about how their personalities work and how their personalities can function at their strongest and most effective levels.

PERSONALITY FITNESS TRAINING BASIC CONCEPTS

Discussion of Concepts

For most people to feel and be successful, certain conditions and behaviors must exist. To help our class become a winning team, the following attitudes, beliefs and behaviors must exist.

Concept 1 - SUPPORT

How can we get people to do their best? People play and do their best when others are for them and not against them. Our job as a team is to help each person in class be able to develop his or her personality by encouragement and support. People show support by being friendly, saying kind things and applauding others.

EXERCISE I:
Have the students practice applauding in class. Ask them how teachers would teach if, when they finished a lecture in class, the students applauded them?

Concept 2 - GOODWILL

Goodwill is an attitude, behavior and trait that people like. Goodwill means that you wish and act so that good things will happen to yourself and others. Ill will is what we often find many people thinking about. They wish to act in such a way as to say they want others to have bad things happen to them. Goodwill is a positive thing to practice and in this class we will be acting and thinking positive thoughts for each other every day.

Concept 3 - HOME COURT ADVANTAGE

Most sports teams like to play on their home courts. They usually win more games on their home court. The reason is because they have fans who practice support and goodwill. They yell positive things about their team, encourage them to do their best, believe good things are going to happen and applaud when a player or the team does their best. This classroom will be your home court and we will create an advantage so that all of you will be successful in being the best you possible.

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Exercise 2:
Show how difficult it is to be in front of a negative and discouraging crowd. Show how hard it is to keep talking when no one is paying attention or is giving negative attention.

A. Have a volunteer stand up in front of the class and talk about something he likes to do.

B. Have the rest of the class ignore him and make discouraging remarks. (Do this for 30 seconds only.)

Exercise 3:
Demonstrate how easy it is to talk and continue with the active verbal and supportive encouragement of the group.

A. Have the same student from previous exercise stand up and talk about what he likes to do.

B. Have the rest of the class encourage and cheer him on as he talks. (Do this for 30 seconds only.)

C. Have the student discuss how it felt being not supported and then supported.

Concept 4 - AWKWARDNESS

The first time we are asked to do something a bit unusual, it may be difficult to get fully into the mood or activity at first. The first time we do these things, it is liable to be superficial, hard, impossible, scary or humorous. Awkwardness is a natural feeling when we try new things. When people first go snow skiing they feel awkward. Some people get past this feeling and learn to ski while others never go skiing again. It is important to remember that the more we do something the less awkward we will feel.

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THE CHALLENGE OF AMERICAN LIFESTYLE TO ASIAN WOMEN

By Maria L. J. de la Rosa, Ph.D.
Asian American, Neuropsychologist

and member: American Psychological Association

As an Asian American who has lived in the U.S. for almost 23 years, I will make an attempt to elucidate the major issues that are inherent in the American life-style for Asian women. This will not be a comprehensive and absolute exposition; for, it is senseless for an individual to speak of the entire Asian feminism and their American acculturation. The term Asian American women here refers to Asian women who were born in Asian countries and spent most of their childhood and early education in Asia and later came to the U.S. for further education, occupation or a marital relationship. Rather I wish to focus my discourse on the following six aspects and challenges of American acculturation for Asian Women: Identity, Communication, Occupation, Education, Socialization and Intimate relationships.

The IDENTITY of an ASIAN-AMERICAN is clearly indefinable. Tachiki in ROOTS, the Asian American Reader, characterizes Asians in America into three categories: the TRADITIONALIST, the MARGINAL MAN, the ASIAN AMERICAN. Accordingly, the Asian American woman who claims to be TRADITIONALIST, adheres firmly to her ethnic Asian values; the MARGINAL Asian American woman finds herself ambivalent and even ambiguous and consequently unable to clearly identify herself as American, or as Asian. The identity of the ASIAN AMERICAN woman is established as she creates in herself a blend of both cultures. Herein is embodied an identity dynamics that presents a challenge. One must possess exceptional ego-energy and stability to discover which aspects of her native culture to curtail, to retain, to modify, and which degree of the American life-style to practice.

I remember quite well, when I came to America in 1966, I was classified as an "OTHER". After my American naturalization, in 1968, I still remained an "OTHER" and recently, the Immigration and Naturalization Services (INS) forms have me finally sorted and classified as an Asian American. The crux of the personal identity issue is in the answer you have for yourself. I take great pride in my Philippine heritage, my American citizenship, my Asian American identity. I have in my life, blended the American assertiveness and the Asian persistence; the quest for profit with the willingness to show industry, integrity and optimism; the motivation for independence and material comfort founded on a deep-rooted Asian and staunchly Catholic religious principles.

The challenge centered on communication is an issue that's not restricted to Asians who come to America. It's even a challenge to the same people speaking a common language. I learned English grammar from French nuns in my elementary grades and from a German boarding school in Manila, Philippines, in the secondary and college levels. In the family, we spoke English from childhood. When I came to America, I spoke English with great confidence at Loyola University. This confidence gradually decreased as I was exposed to American idioms that often left me completely perplexed and embarrassed. As a rule, one should not repeat idiomatic expressions unless one is fully aware of its context and implied connotations. Shortly upon arrival to the U.S., communications between Asian American women and Americans, regardless of the country of origin, is often characterized by reluctance, native accents and foreign styles of speech.

Tonal languages of Asia and the Pacific require word emphasis by the volume and rate of speech. To Americans this may be perceived as a linguistic deficiency. A Western hasty and loud greeting will definitely not mesmerize an Asian. It is an obvious faux pas to touch a new Asian American acquaintance. The typical Asian American woman is not loud and loquacious but sedate and soft-spoken. I urge each Asian American woman to be an individual whose communication blends both the American and Asian cultures by the clarity and command of both languages, the self-assurance to speak with conviction and confidence.

An Asian American woman who is employed in an American work setting for the first time is faced with a myriad of novel experiences: time cards, administrative protocol, intermittent reviews and reports, first name basis, seniority privileges, display of initiative and assertiveness. Working in America differs with marital status of the Asian American woman. A single woman has far different occupational challenges from an American woman who has to function productively at work simultaneously with her cultural roles as wife, mother, parent and professional. It takes a supportive marital partner to encourage the continued personal and professional enrichment of an Asian American wife. The use of "credit cards" is likewise a new experience for the Asian American working woman. In American, to have credit, one must first possess credit. This is truly foreign to the Asian values of paying cash for commodities. The ritualistic and scheduled pace of working in America is different from the calm and unhurried Asian working milieu. The occupational challenge to Asian American women can be met by a combination of punctuality and productivity, a conscious effort to stabilize the inner calm amidst the rush syndrome, a genuine remembrance to work hard but never losing track of who I am, where I want to go, how best to get there.

Education has always been a universal value to both American and Asians. Many Asian American women, according to their economic and social status, come to America to further their education. One of the most baffling first experiences I had at Loyola University was the first-name basis used for Professors, the coeducational school setting, having my own apartment, having to do my own house chores, keeping a strict budget. Soon after I came, I discovered the necessity for driving to school and work, the shocking reversal value of the grading system, the urgency to make independent decisions regarding housing, clothing, transportation, relationships. Education has always been a motivational factor in my life. When I was divorced in 1977, I pursued a Master's degree and a Ph.D. The pursuit of these goals energized my efforts and stabilized my mental health. There is great joy in getting an education with your own work and self-earned money. Educated Asian American women continue to contribute greatly to their occupational settings by their cultural work ethic of industry and gentleness; their patience and productivity; their tenacity to principles and their subtle humor. The pursuit of higher education should continue to motivate Asian American women. It is a dream that we can realize. It is a goal we can reach. It is a self-promise that we Asian American women can keep.

Socialization for Asian American women highlights the linguistic and cultural differences. To the TRADITIONALIST, socialization will primarily center around ethnic celebrations, family gatherings, church meetings exactly "as it is done back home." The MARGINAL Asian American woman will find herself being American with Americans and Asian with Asians. The clearly self-identified ASIAN AMERICAN woman will establish her own personal style of acculturation. The heritage of ASIA gives tribute to intermingling of Chinese utilitarianism, Indian spirituality, and Japanese aestheticism. While socializing in Asia, scanty and flamboyant clothing will evoke ridicule. In some urban areas in America, the response may be complete nonchalance. Asians are delicately conservative about public contact between the sexes. In Asia socialization precedes a business relationship. In the U.S., a business relationship doesn't necessarily include socialization. The invitation to the home in Asia is genuine and selective. In America, an aura of privacy surrounds the home. "The pursuit of profit and the allure of the exotic" (Silk Roads) stimulate socialization with Asian Americas. Refusal to partake of food at table to the Filipinos is perceived impolite. In America, it is your right and privilege to express individual choice, going "Dutch" at a date, opening a gift in front of the giver, greeting the younger family member first, prolonged eye-contact, loud talking, are considered rude in Asian etiquette. All these are usual and accepted in America. In socialization, an important aspect of acculturation must be governed by open-mindedness and discretion, adaptability and selectivity, American "lay-back" optimism and the Asian resilience to accept change.

To fully understand the process involving intimate relationships between American Asian women and American men is like trying to simplify the mysteries of the universe. It is imperative that one first understands the socioeconomic environment in which a majority of Asians live, the multifarious systems of thought which shape the Asian attitudes towards life. Casual acquaintances, friendships, dating, courtships, marriages, separations, divorces when an Asian American woman is concerned, holds a multifaceted cultural shock and challenge. The failure to become cognizant of cultural differences is a myopic view of lasting relationships.

In many Asian countries, the male shoulders all expenses incurred while dating and for nuptials. Weddings, American style, imposes most of the financial responsibility on the bride. When a separation or divorce involves an Asian American woman, these occurrences are usually painfully accompanied by resentment and nonsupportive reaction from her Asian family, a world of insecurities, an abrupt change of life-style, and added mother and father dual role and parental responsibility, an additional occupational switch and sometimes relocation. When I was divorced in 1977, I immediately pursued a Master's degree and eventually a Ph.D. My three minor children, ages 5, 6 and 8 then, spurred my educational incentive. I took several part-time jobs: custodial, housecleaning, temporary teaching, bell-hopping at a resort hotel, occasional catering. These were indeed poignantly difficult times for my children and myself.

My strong faith and deep-rooted Asian principles have inspired my indefatigable energy and optimism. In America, when one makes marital change, it is accepted and understood. In Asia, when one undergoes separation or divorce, it is often perceived with familial nonacceptance and shame. It is a hushed topic. It is a great marital blunder. The Asian American divorcee rather than getting acceptance and understanding from her family, is usually a social embarrassment and an unwelcome family member. In my clinical practice, several Asian American divorcees share these sentiments. Their reaction? Baffled silence. Painful memories. To fully exploit this negative experience, one should concentrate on self-discovery and self-enrichment. One owes it to one's self NOT TO STAGNATE. This is one occasion wherein one makes a big decision to take care of "self" rather than please cultural expectations. To insure one's mental health is, in my opinion, a cheap price for divorce. I personally believe that it is far healthier for children to live with each parent in peace, than with both in constant conflict. To admit one has made a marital mistake is far more rewarding than to live with the mistake, to give the semblance of a congenial relationship, to have a pseudo marriage partnership. I have been an Asian American single parent for twelve years. My children have now grown — physically, spiritually and psychologically — two in college and one high school senior. To speak of my experience as an Asian American single parent would take another discourse.

In conclusion, I would like to reiterate my stand in speaking about the challenge of American acculturation to Asian American women. My statements are not absolute and irrefutable. I have, however, verbalized the genuine sentiments of one Philippine-American feminist who likewise claims to be a universalist. American life-style does indeed embody the challenge of IDENTITY, COMMUNICATION, EDUCATION, OCCUPATION, SOCIALIZATION and PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS to Asian American women. These are multidimensional challenges indeed. But, any Asian American woman can undoubtedly surpass these cultural difficulties and seeming barriers by becoming a pulchitudinous blend of the American and Asian cultures.

American acculturation is a lifetime process. It is a continuous discovery of what degree I am American, in what aspect I remain Asian. It requires unceasing courage, energy and patience. It involves a genuineness and clarity of purpose; a stamina and potency of endeavor. It is a challenge to which Asian American women have an answer. It involves a self-discovery we can make. It is an enigma we can unfold. It is a process we can complete.

* * * * * * * * * * * * *

This article will be presented by Dr. de la Rosa in HONG KONG at the International Conference for Counseling on December 26, 1989-January 2, 1990. Dr. de la Rosa is the author of three valuable contributions to education and the medical profession: The Phenomenology of Epilepsy (1985), Job-Readiness Training for Neurologically Dysfunctioned (1983), the AMNESTY PRIMER (1989). The latter is used as a text for some Amnesty Programs — a combined project of the California State Department of Education and the U.S. Department of Immigration and Naturalization Services. Forwarding address: 2674 East Main Street, Suite 145, Ventura, California 93003.

DIRECTION OF GUIDANCE WORK IN HONG KONG PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Mr. Mak Tit-wah, Senior Education Officer
Education Department

Introduction

The principal objectives of the primary school is to help pupils to acquire a lively interest in the world around them and an ability to think for themselves and make decisions, a sense of moral and social values, including respect for the views and beliefs of others, competence in the basic skills of literacy and numeracy and an appreciation of the world's cultural heritage, in particular that of their own community. To achieve these objectives, education must be far more than academic study. In recent years, there has been a change in educational emphasis from mere dissemination of knowledge to one of fostering pupils' overall development. The Student Guidance Service which provides assistance to teachers in overcoming pupils' problems was first introduced in primary schools in 1978 and has been widely accepted by parents and teachers as an integral part of the work of local primary schools.

2. The Student Guidance Service which developed considerably since 1978 has moved beyond its initial major objective of reducing or preventing anti-social or delinquent behaviour among young people to one of providing a supporting service to students, employing the services of Student Guidance Officers who are qualified teachers with further guidance training. These Student Guidance Officers are now responsible for assisting primary school pupils to meet their personal, social and educational needs through the provision of individual support to pupils and targeted preventive programmes. "Guidance enhances personal growth and adds happiness to life (輔導助成長，生活添歡樂)" is the slogan of the Student Guidance Service and reflects its major objectives.

3. As a senior member of the Student Guidance Section of the Education Department, my experience has been that the needs of the pupils are best met when all those concerned with the children in question, namely parents, teachers, schools, families, relatives, student guidance officers and para-professionals can be involved in concerted action. Key areas in facilitating this are the enhancement of teacher training in guidance and counselling, the facilitating of better home school contacts and the promotion of greater parental involvement in the child's education.

Enhancing Teachers Training in the Areas of Guidance and Counselling

4. Literature examining recent developments in education systems

relating to the application of counselling skills reflects that there has been a change of emphasis from that of solely relying upon specialist counsellors to one of also involving teachers providing the latter with basic counselling skills. This has been the pattern of development currently taking place in Hong Kong.

5. Many teachers in local schools have the misconception that only experts outside the classroom should attend to pupils in need of guidance and counselling. However, local educators are increasingly aware of the significant role teachers can play in the guidance and counselling of their pupils. Teachers, particularly the class teacher, are in the best position to attend to the welfare of the whole class, to detect irregular behaviour in school children and to offer prompt first hand assistance because of their close daily contacts with pupils. With training and the support of appropriate resources, teachers can be helped to widen their perspectives in supporting pupils, and develop a more accepting and positive attitude towards them. This is particularly important now that all local children aged between six and fifteen, the ages when critical physical and personal development take place, are required to attend school. The alert, concerned and well-trained teacher is able to support his children in their personal and social development, to detect at an early stage children at risk, and to refer them for appropriate help from other professionals.

6. A number of strategies are being adopted by the Education Department to increase the numbers of teachers who are trained in guidance and counselling. Taking into consideration the size of the teaching population, it is considered that the most practical first steps are the strengthening and broadening of guidance elements in the existing teacher education courses, especially in classroom management, teaching skills, delinquency identification and prevention and the provision as a matter of priority of a training course for those serving teachers who have responsibilities for discipline and guidance. New entrants to the teaching profession can be reached in the teacher education institutions before they take up employment in the schools. We also consider it vital to obtain the support of school heads and principals through seminars and workshops, since the guidance role of the teacher and his effectiveness is very much influenced by the attitude of the head or the principal. For teachers in schools where the majority of disadvantaged pupils are concentrated, school-based workshops will be organized. The Education Department also operates two resource centres, a Guidance Teacher Resource Centre and a Resource Centre for Student Guidance Officers both of which provide teachers with resource materials on guidance and house a central reference library and equipment for guidance work. The centres are also open for use by ordinary teachers upon request.

7. A major focus of guidance elements in teacher training courses is to help teachers understand the behaviour of school-aged children, including the impact of the family, the school, peer group and the mass media. Teachers are also asked to examine their own values and

attitudes towards normal and delinquent behaviour and to see how pupils' behaviour can be influenced by teachers and pupils' own expectations of themselves. Information on the symptoms displayed by pupils at risk as well as on the techniques for identifying such pupils are provided. The importance of offering timely and appropriate assistance to pupils at risk and the need for building a trusting relationship with them is stressed. Updated information on relevant community resources and the role of teacher in inter-disciplinary co-operation is provided and the development of positive pupil behaviour encouraged through topics such as the effective use of classroom management techniques, the establishment of positive pupils' self-concepts and the creation of good teacher-pupil and teacher-parent relations. The management of disruptive pupils in the classroom can become a very potent focus of stress in teachers and they have to be equipped with knowledge on ways of avoiding unnecessary confrontations with children.

Facilitating better home-school contacts

8. Children from three years of age upwards live most of their lives in two major settings, the home and the school. Few would dispute that the home and the school play complementary roles in children's learning and development. Since parents and teachers share overlapping areas of interest and responsibility for the same children, with whom they interact in different settings, a co-operative partnership between parent and teacher in facilitating children's learning and development is essential and achievable. However, maintaining home-school liaison is not an easy task. It requires good will and positive attitudes from both parties.

9. Schools rarely have difficulty in establishing a dialogue with interested and committed parents but find it considerably harder to achieve the same with those who are reluctant to take initiatives or to respond to invitations. To some parents, the school represents an unfamiliar, even alien, culture and a considerable gap exists between life at school and life at home. This is particularly true where parents' own experiences of school were unhappy or unfulfilling. In such circumstances, it is the responsibility of the school to make the parents feel welcome and accepted. On the other hand, parents need to try to understand the philosophy of the school and what it is trying to achieve. Only with the motivation to understand and accept each other can a good working relationship develop for the benefit of the children concerned.

10. Over the past ten years, there has been widespread interest among developed countries in promoting parental involvement. For instance, in the state of California, parents have operational control in the management of schools. Parents have a say in the choice of subjects and they can enter the classroom and observe the teacher and children in action. Parents can also influence the school administration through active participation in parent-teacher

associations. In the United Kingdom too, it is rare not to find active parent-teachers associations. However in Hong Kong, such parental involvement is nowhere to be found on this scale, but schools are being strongly encouraged to increase the scope for and the extent of home-school liaison. In October, 1988, the Education Department produced a booklet on good parenting for distribution to all parents of primary and secondary school pupils with the objective of promoting home-school liaison. Seminars on" Towards Better Co-operation Between Parents and School" for Heads of secondary schools were held in the 1988/89 school year to reinforce the objectives set down in the booklet.

11. A question to be answered is how school and parents can best forge a partnership. The needs of schools and families sometimes coincide, sometimes partially overlap, but often differ in important ways. Whilst schools and families will 'draw the line' differently, the recognition of both common ground and important differences, have to be acknowledged as a basic element in any home-school liaison strategy. It is for this reason that teachers should reach out and listen to the parents so as to create a friendly atmosphere and make parents feel welcomed and respected.

12. In as much as teachers are skilled in teaching, parents too have their own understanding of their children's needs. It is for this reason that teachers should be prepared to listen to parents to avoid a one way flow of ideas. Another way of making the parents feel welcome and respected is to create a friendly atmosphere when the parents visit the school. Home visits and more informal meetings are also helpful in the establishment of good working relationships. A parent should not be summoned to school only to receive reports or when the child misbehaves and parents' reluctance to come to school will be minimized if they are invited in for 'good news'. The positive image of the school in showing appreciation of pupils' or parents' efforts can indeed make the parents more ready to work with the teaching staff.

13. Communication channels found in schools can be grouped into two types: those involving parents in school activities such as taking part in the school's special occasions of open day, speech day, sports day, parent's day and parent-teacher association; and those involving writing to parents through the pupil's handbook and newsletters. However, much of the existing communication channels only provide information to parents on the child's academic pursuits, sports and extra-curricular activities rather than aiming at the development of a good working relationship.

14. Parents should be encouraged to bring their concerns to school and clear communication channels should be established with a staff member responsible for the named child for future contact. Teachers should be outreaching and initiate contacts through the telephone, newsletters or home visits.

15. The handbook as a tool for communication has shown a tendency to become too formal, confining its content to informing the parents of school events or reporting on a child's misconduct. It would be preferable if items such as reports upon children's activities in curriculum areas could be included. A space should be left for reporting on the accomplishments or remarks by individual children or even a parents' column. In addition, an open-door policy should be considered whereby parents are invited to functions as resource persons or aides in various school activities such as picnics or are invited to informal meetings.

16. Home-school liaison should be put on the school's agenda rather than in its calendar. The school should draw up a home-school liaison programme. To develop an effective home-school partnership, the whole school staff have to acknowledge the value and importance of parents to the schools. Operationally, a regular examination of the extent to which the parents are involved; a careful implementation of the activities and a systematic review and evaluation of the effectiveness of the programme are of prime importance.

17. The individual school implementing a home-school liaison programme has to consider what level of parental involvement it prefers, bearing in mind the particular needs of the school and of the parents. The level of involvement can range from merely an orientation one which only provides the parents with the basic information of the school's activities and organization to one whereby parents are actively providing support and assistance in school's activities. For those parents who have special aptitudes, they can also contribute towards overseeing some of the programmes and help in the training programmes. A third level of involvement is to have parents' representation on the school management committee or its governing body. Parents should be given the opportunity of having an active say in the planning of school policy, curriculum and educational programmes. However, the suitability and personal philosophy of the parents would be important considerations in such a situation.

Promoting Parental Involvement in the Child's Education

18. Finally I want to discuss the parents' involvement in their child's education. It is generally believed that child rearing is much more difficult a task than hitherto given the disintegration of the extended family in recent times, the rise in numbers of single-parent households, and the increase in the numbers of working families. In the past when people lived together in extended families, new mothers could share experiences in child-rearing with their elders. Nowadays new mothers often live in neighbourhoods with other new mothers who also have little parenting experience. This is particularly true of housing estates in the newly developed satellite towns in Hong Kong.

19. Through the booklet on good parenting mentioned earlier on, the Education Department attempts to suggest some practical guides in parenting. The pamphlet was issued to parents of children in primary and secondary schools and was well-received. Many parents responded by telephoning the Education Department to discuss the issues raised in the pamphlet. The Department in cooperation with local TV and broadcasting agencies produced this summer a series of programmes which aimed at helping parents to understand their roles in their children's education and development. Educationalists are in fact only one group among other professionals who are trying to help parents in educating their children. Another booklet on "Responsible Parenthood" was issued in October this year by the Government Information Services for the purpose of preventing child neglect. The same theme, "Responsible Parenthood", was adopted in various activities organized by the Committees on Family Life Education Campaign.

20. Student Guidance Officers have an important role to play in working with parents. Through individual case contacts or preventive programmes, Student Guidance Officers help parents understand their children's needs and assist them to acquire the necessary skills to support their children in school work. Experience shows that the majority of local parents are concerned but need direction and guidance. Given understanding and acceptance, however, they respond well to overtures and genuine outreaching efforts extended by the school.

21. During my recent visit to the United States, I had the opportunity to observe professionals working with parents through parent-study groups. Meetings of a parent-study group was usually either once per fortnight or once a month over ten sessions. The optimum number of participants was about twenty. Parent-study groups are now found in almost every part of the United States, of Canada and much of Europe. In the United Kingdom, parent evenings are among the most popular type of mutual contact. I believe the same trend of development could evolve in Hong Kong in the very near future. One approach is to establish a parent-study group led by lay people, although it may be initiated by a professional. The advantage of such an arrangement is that professionals are called upon to give answers to questions and solutions to problems. The main purpose is to encourage parents to participate actively, to promote study and to discuss concerns which parents have in common. Many parents in their struggle to cope with the problems associated with bringing up their children often feel that they are alone. However by joining a group, they soon discover that other parents have similar if not more serious problems than their own. Thus families through reading, discussing and questioning are able under the guidance of a leader, to help each other.

Conclusion

22. In summary then, the direction of guidance work in local primary schools is based on a firm belief that a co-ordinated effort among professionals and parents will produce the optimum outcome. While we believe that involvement of the professionals in guidance work or related fields is vitally important, we also believe that their efforts could be greatly assisted by providing appropriate training for teachers and other lay people so as to reinforce the work of the counselling professions. We highly value the involvement of parents in schools, and in the general education of their children. In emphasizing the importance of good parenting, we see the importance of respect, and love which together make parenting happy and successful rather than the traditional, autocratic stance of rearing children. Lastly I must reiterate the importance of the school curriculum. While some pupils might behave badly due to emotional problems, the core of the trouble might be an unsuitable curriculum which fails to arouse the interest and attention of the children. We therefore think that a more flexible school-based approach to the curriculum tailored to the individual needs of pupils may reduce significantly the difficulties they would have to face. It is in these directions that we hope to see developments in the near future.

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THE RORSCHACH: CULTURE-FAIR, OR CULTURE-BIASED?

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Historically, the Rorschach has been used in a number of different ways. Abel (1948) characterizes these as studies exploring psychopathology, development, and culture or anthropology. Rorschach himself intended the use of the instrument to remain within the first of these realms. After his death in 1922, anthropologists soon took up the instrument as their own. In many of the resulting studies, the term "culture" has been equated with "race". Rorschach (1942) did not differentiate between the two and admitted that "culture" is a relevant variable in Rorschach protocols, stating that differences are almost certain to be found if the protocols of a 40-year old Englishman, Frenchman, and Russian are compared. The concept of race as equivalent to culture, however, was a tenuous one even in the 1940s and 1950s when the bulk of the anthropological research was done (Anastasi, 1949).

Arising from this view that race and culture were synonymous was the anthropologist's search for modal personalities - those personality characteristics which were shared by all members of a given race or culture (e.g. that all Chinese are reserved, repressed, and inscrutable). This assumes that culture and personality are separate, non-interacting variables (Hallowell, 1945).

In this presentation, it will be assumed that neither the synonomity of race and culture, nor the mutual exclusiveness of culture and personality are viable notions. Instead, personality, as measured by the Rorschach, will be regarded as reciprocally interactive with an individual's culture, and will allow for the prospect that Rorschach norms may change as the mores and values of a given society or individual change. This assumption is not without foundation; Brown in 1971 found an increase in the frequency with which female forms were perceived by both males and females between 1954 and 1967.

Though an individual's race is widely assumed to be biologically determined, the concept of culture remains somewhat elusive. Many fields and many individuals have attempted to define it with varying measures of success. In 1966, Frijda and Jahoda wrote,

> "...Like most other psychologists, we are not anxious to dispel the illusion...that we know what we mean by this concept..." (p. 110)

Fourteen years later, Jahoda (1980) was still struggling with this issue, stating,

> "...further theoretical advances in cross-cultural psychology will probably depend to a considerable extent on a more rigorous analysis and operationalization of the concept of 'culture'...(p. 31)"

It is not within the scope of this treatise to debate the merits and disadvantages of one definition of culture over another. For our purposes, the term will be used interchangeably with the term "ethnicity". A definition developed by Craig, Deacon, & Wohlberg (1988) will be employed. It reads,

> "...Ethnicity is non-biological. It is a set of values and beliefs to which an individual aligns oneself voluntarily, or is aligned to by virtue of indoctrination (including the indoctrination of upbringing), and to which an individual feels a sense of identification and commitment. Each person's ethnicity is a composite of a diverse set of values, drawn from an arena of influences, among which may be racial traditions, religion, country of origin, country of residence, place of residence, language, etc." (pp 6-7).

With the 1960's, and an increasing awareness of minorities and the differences between people of varying backgrounds, came the birth of a new field of psychology - that of cross-cultural studies. Eckensberger (cited in Cronbach & Drenth, 1972) has defined the study of cross-cultural psychology to be,

> "...the explicit, systematic comparison of psychological variables under different cultural conditions in order to specify the antecedents and processes that mediate the emergence of behavior differences (p.100)."

He goes on to say,

> "...in basic cross-cultural research the intent should not be a generalization of a result over cultural groups; this would imply the underlying supposition that there are no differences. ... Rather the interest should be to examine, in general, and to what extent, cultural conditions influence psychological variables (p. 102)."

The concern for cross-cultural fairness and efficacy in treatment has extended into the arena of testing. The facetiously-named BITCH test (Black Intelligence Test of Cultural Homogeneity) and the SOMPA (System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment) are but two of the instruments newly designed to redress just such issues as the culture bias or unfairness of traditional assessment measures.

It seems fair to say that the search for a "culture-free" test has been abandoned as the complexity and pervasive nature of culture has been recognized (Frijda & Jahoda, 1966) and the call now is for assessment devices that are "culture-fair", i.e. that do not unfairly discriminate against one culture or another. Inherent in the search for a test such as this is the need to balance cultural equivalence with the need to delineate relevant individual differences. An instrument so universal that all subjects receive the same score is useless.

In designing such an instrument, the use of emic versus etic approaches is, arguably, the first decision a researcher must make. Etic approaches employ experimenters from outside the culture being investigated and use

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traditional, normed measurement instruments. Emic approaches explore behaviors within a culture as they are viewed by that culture.

The second major concern of the cross-cultural psychologist is the levels of equivalence of the instrument. Berry & Dasen (1974) feel that three criteria must be met if cultures are to be meaningfully compared. Functional equivalence refers to behaviors that mean the same thing in different cultures. Egeland, Hostetter & Eshleman (1983) present a good example of behavior that is not functionally equivalent when they speak of their study of the Amish in which driving a car was found to be indicative of a manic state in the Amish community. Such behavior is not likely to be found out of the ordinary in another community. Conceptual equivalence refers to instances in which concepts or constructs are equivalent. Lopez & Nunez (1987) address this issue in their study of the cultural factors inherent in diagnostic criteria. Test items should refer to behavior and attitudes that can reasonably be found within a culture. Metric equivalence is the third equivalence necessary in the Berry & Dasen system. This equivalence considers the psychometric equality of a measure across cultures, i.e. is the skew the same, do the means compare? In general, this can be categorized as the answer to the question: Is the statistical behavior of the items in each culture the same?

Trimble, Lonner & Boucher (1983) add a fourth consideration, that of linguistic equivalence. Linguistic equivalence is most simply characterized as the degree to which test items translated from their original language by one person and then translated by another individual back into the first language are identical from beginning to end. This process is commonly referred to as "back translation" and is crucial to the validity of any individual item, as well as to the validity of the instrument as a whole. Operationally, this most often this involves developing items that are simple sentences or questions with no pronouns, idioms or colloquialisms, and no use of the passive subjunctive hypothetical.

Each of the aforementioned variables must be considered also within the parameters of equivalence of verbal materials, instructions and tasks; equivalence of non-verbal testing materials; and the equivalence of test situations.

The issue of levels of acculturation is somewhat more complicated. Level of acculturation has been shown to be a significant factor in the results of many studies. A brief example is offered here. Ramirez, Castaneda, & Herold (1974) found differences in the degree to which a group of Mexican mothers and their children were field dependent or field independent. In this study, mothers and children with increasing degrees of contact with other cultures were found to have decreasing degrees of field dependence in their cognitive problem-solving strategies as measured by the portable-rod-and-frame test (PRFT).

The development of any psychometric is a time-consuming and painstaking process, even more so when the instrument in question requires cross-cultural validity and reliability in an infinite number of cultures and languages and purports to measure a concept as yet quite poorly defined as culture. It is understandable that an investigator might be loathe to develop what could be misconstrued as a test of "American-ness." Certainly, any cross-cultural study of the Rorschach should provide an attempt to measure the constellation of acculturation presented by subjects and should detail such in any published report.

The fourth pandemic issue is that of testing bias. Sundberg & Gonzales (1981) have stated that:

> "...a test is unfair when it is irrelevant or misleading for the decisions it is intended to facilitate (p. 481)".

Also falling under this category are items that might be referred to as being variations in test taking situations, attitudes and response sets Theory about the effects of response set generally falls into one of 2 camps. It is either considered to be an important indicator of personality (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964 cited in Pedersen, Draguns, Trimble & Lonner, 1976) or it is viewed as a statistical artifact which needs accounting for (Block, 1965; Rorer, 1965 - cited in Pedersen, Draguns, Trimble & Lonner, 1976 p. 285).

Psychologists should also be alert to the variations in the testing situation. Differences between subject and examiner in expectations regarding non-verbal behaviors including dress, posture, eye contact, formality of verbal address and even the order of entering the testing room or being seated can all effect testing outcomes. Often referred to as "test expectancy", this concept includes not only expectations about quality of performance but also the subjects' familiarity with the purpose of this specific test as well as with the process of testing in general.

A final global consideration in the field of all psychological testing, but most especially in the cross-cultural application of psychometrics is that of the reliability and validity of norms. Lonner (1985) suggests that in a multi-cultural setting, the inappropriateness of norms should be assumed unless the test manual or some other data-based study provides adequate normative statistics. The same is true for reliability. Because of differences in overall levels of health, general education and novelty of the testing situation, reliability coefficients may fluctuate within and between cultures. Without the attainment of equivalence, a given instrument can be assumed to be neither valid nor reliable.

Because of the greater ambiguity of the stimulus materials it was for some time assumed that projective tests, and especially those with non-verbal stimulus materials (i.e., the Rorschach, TAT, and the Holtzman Inkblots), were somewhat less culture-bound than verbal and objective measures. This is no longer held to be true. Though many investigators have offered criticisms in this area (Abel, 1973; Spain, 1972; Adcock & Ritchie, 1958; Hallowell, 1941, 1945; Dana, 1986, to name just a few), the 1961 work of Lindzey is perhaps the most cogent and comprehensive. The reader is referred to this work due to time and space constraints herein.

For the previously mentioned reasons alone, it would seem that grounds exist to view the cross-cultural application of the Rorschach with a suspicious eye. To add fuel to this fire, however, one only need look beyond the administration and culture-bound norms and interpretations of the instrument to the stimulus materials themselves.

The Rorschach is an instrument that requires a tremendous amount of verbal output on the part of the person being tested. While it seems self-evident to say that subjects' responses (as well as test directions and queries) should be either given in the speaker's native language or "back-translated" to check for accuracy, this has almost never been reported in the literature. In addition, there is evidence that the language of response determines the quality and content of the response (Ervin, 1964). Irvine & Sanders (1972) suggest that one's entire affective experience is couched and coached within the language one first learned. Goldberg (1982, p. 204, cited in Peabody, 1987) asserts that the characteristics, concepts and words that are the most significant in the daily life of a given culture will eventually become a part of that culture's language. Peabody (1987) argues that because of this, investigators should choose to measure personality variables that are representative of trait adjectives in that language as opposed to adjectives native to the language of the experimenter. In considering these arguments, many questions arise. For example, what does it mean to measure interpersonal connectedness in a language in which no word for "intimacy" exists? What does it mean, and is it valid, to categorize a subject as repressed or emotionally restricted when the language shows that such sharing or even experiencing of deep affect is not encouraged?

The second general area of concern specific to the Rorschach is its non-verbal nature. Because of this, the cross-cultural investigator must determine the nature of the stimulus to which the subject is responding. While the answer to the question "what is the stimulus?" may seem self-evident - i.e. the inkblot! - in fact, because the Rorschach is a technique designed to be fundamentally perceptual in nature, cultural and other learned behaviors are factors that may be even more influential than in more objective tests.

In general, visual perception is a two-step process. The first step is a biological and neurological one of registering a given stimulus in the brain. The second step involves the interpretation of the resulting neuro-electrical discharges. Within the discipline of visual perception there has been controversy about which of these two processes is dominant and determinant of what a given subject "saw." Is it biological differences that cause people to interpret pictures in different ways - i.e., a difference in the neuronal systems due to genetic factors? Or are there learned sociological or intrapsychic variances that cause some subjects to percieve differently from others? When he designed the Rorschach, Hermann Rorschach had a foot firmly planted in both camps. On the one hand he warned experimenters that they would find racial differences (due to genetics), and on the other he insisted that each subject projected his intrapsychic self onto the blot (a function of interpretation). Though a vast body of literature exists to support the hypothesis that visual perception is racially (genetically) influenced, much of it was early work which has not withstood the pressures of time and replication.

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There remain primarily 2 dimensions along which the visual-perceptual aspects of the Rorschach may be considered. The first of these is color, and the second may be loosely referred to as form.

The impact and significance of color on individuals has been assumed for centuries. Certain colors have been reserved for royalty, for sinners, for brides, for mourners, and for the envious. These colors vary depending upon the culture under consideration. For example, in the Chinese culture a bride marries in red and wears white to bury loved ones. In the West, the color is more likely white for a bride and black for a widow. Rorschach assumed that color was intimately connected to his subjects' intrapsychic affective lives and to their cultural backgrounds. To illustrate his point, he suggests that in cultures where black is not the color of mourning (as it is in much of the Western world) that particular culture must hold a view of death that is "different" from that held by those in cultures where black signifies sorrow and loss (Rorschach, 1942). For many years, the face validity of this color-affect-culture connection remained unchallenged. Eventually, however, experimenters began to question the theory that color in the Rorschach cards could reflect a subject's internal affective life. Studies measuring autonomic responses such as galvanic skin response, pulse and blood pressure were conducted, as were studies utilizing achromatic reproductions of the color cards. A comprehensive review of the rather extensive literature on the effect of color in the Rorschach is offered by Frank (1976). To summarize, Frank finds no consistent evidence that color, per se, influences Rorschach responsivity. In fact, Frank finds that very little response of any kind can be attributed to the pure absence or presence of color: a finding previously supported by Hays & Boardman (1975). Rather, he finds that, "by and large the affective meaning of colors varies from person to person, and within individuals, from mood to mood...colors are themselves like a projective technique (pp. 415)." Following this line of reasoning, one can reasonably conclude that if color does influence Rorschach responding (and there are many who argue that it does), then it is not unreasonable to suspect that response to color may vary according to the cultural background of the person being tested. To date, there have been no studies exploring variations in Rorschach responses due to an interaction between color and culture.

Form is the second stimulus characteristic to be mentioned here. Form may be loosely described as the shape of both the inkblot as a whole and of its component parts. In this way, form may also be considered a type of visual or geometric illusion in that a given individual is expected to report percepts in variation from those which another individual might report. The literature on the visual perception of forms and geometric illusions is vast and especially broad in its coverage of cross-cultural diversity. The primary question in this field is why illusions are perceived differently by differing cultures, with the type of illusion and the subject's ecological background determining his/her response (Segal, Campbell, & Herskovits, 1963, 1966; Berlyne, 1975). Other studies have explored the extent to which familiarity with both the type of task at hand and the objects reflected in the stimulus cards influences subjects' performance (Fowler & Amajoyi, 1983). As might be expected, scores tend to improve in correspondence with increases in both of the above variables. Kennedy (1974) presents a convincing argument that all pictures and forms are adequately perceived (identified) across cultures, but that the interpretation of those pictures and forms is what differs.

> "...widely different cultures recognize pictures in common ways. Only when discussion of the scene or stories about the scene are required will different cultural backgrounds matter." (pp. 69)
>
> "...Asking for interpretation is asking for cultural diversity." (pp. 70)

There is not much difference between Kennedy's conclusions based on his review of empirical literature and Rorschach's hypothesis of individual interpretation and racial differences. It is, therefore, reasonable to assume that, like many visual illusions, responses to the Rorschach Inkblot test are influenced by subjects' cultural backgrounds.

Directions for future research

Many questions remain in the field of cross-cultural applications of the Rorschach and much basic research needs to be done. Some suggestions for further investigation include: having identical Rorschach protocols scored by two or more ethnic groups of psychologists, comparing differences in group labelling and diagnosis and giving the Rorschach in two languages while checking for intrasubject differences (much like the study by Ervin, 1964 which compared the TAT responses given in French and English by bilingual subjects). Other studies exploring the effects of language on Rorschach protocols might involve administering the instrument to monolingual, American-born children of differing ethnic groups (for example, American born children of Chinese descent who speak only English, and American born children of Chinese descent who speak only Chinese). A similar experiment could be performed with monolingual and bilingual adults residing in the US, though it might be difficult to find adults dwelling in the United States who are not to some degree bilingual. If a suitable measure of acculturation could be found or devised, a study comparing groups at different places along the continuum of assimilation and acculturation might also be helpful in exploring the kinds of changes and stresses felt by persons in this process. Finally, research into the role of the sex of the experimenter with different cultural groups is also needed. In addition, studies developing normative incidences of responses for any given culture (similar to the study done by Krall, et al. 1983) are necessary. Cross-cultural studies of "popular" responses (Knudsen, Gorham, & Moseley, 1966) are needed. Any of the studies mentioned above could only be enriched by the addition of a control group (as opposed to blind reliance on previously developed norms), or the variation of the sex of the examiner.

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WOMEN'S CHANGING ROLES & STRESS:
PATHWAYS TO MORE EFFECTIVE LIVING

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SAN FRANCISCO COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Through out the world today, in both developed and developing countries, the two earner family is becoming the norm. The traditional division of labor, in which only husbands work outside the home to earn the money while their wives care for their families, is becoming a way of the past. The rising cost of living requires the income of both spouses for most families to manage. However, women have not given up the occupation of homemaker while adding outside employment. Rather, they are now both homemakers and workers. A U.S. National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health report says, "The hardest working person in the entire world is the women who works a full day, and then comes home to cook, clean house and care for her children and husband." Special problems for working women include sexual harassment by male supervisors and coworkers, less secure positions, part time work and the segregation of women in lower paying occupations. In addition, the increase in divorce leaves many women as the sole support of their children. The Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, in the report "Women, paid/unpaid work and stress," concludes that stress is the number one health problem facing women today.

Stress is the automatic, physical and psychological response of our bodies to a major demand, physical or mental. Our ancesters in prehistoric times, when attacked by wild animals or enemies were prepared to either fight or run for their lives by the stress or "fight, flight or fright" response. When faced by danger or threat a series of changes prepare the body for swift action. Blood pressure, the rate of breathing, the heart rate and the level of blood sugar all increase. These changes helped primitive people to take steps to save their lives. They continue to be helpful today providing the extra push that enables an athlete to win or the "superhuman" strength displayed by a woman who lifted a car off of her child. However, in our modern complex world, most threatening situations are social in nature, such as conflict with a co-worker, supervisors or one's spouse, the need to compete and get ahead and the demands of superiors. These problems cannot be effectively handled by physical fighting or running away. These situations leave the body keyed for action with no release. Prolonged stress can lead to nervous and physical illness. Stress can cause or contribute to depression, nervous tension, fatique, headaches and poor appetite. It can also weaken the immune system and lower disease resistance. Research suggests that stress is the underlying cause for up to 80% of all medical complaints. A sign of the prevalence of stress among women is the widespread use of prescription drugs by women. Women use 50% more drugs than men. Women Women use 71% of all prescribed anti-depressant drugs.

This is one way in which many women cope with the stress of their daily lives.

I would like to describe a holistic approach to managing stress for today's women. By "holistic", I mean an emphasis on the total person, taking steps to maintain health rather than just reacting to illness and disorders after they manifest themselves. This could also be called "wellness". The objective is to maximize mental and physical health and maintain a healthy working environment.

I. Nutrition, sleep and exercise are vital elements for keeping your health.

1. Nutrition. The first requirement of good health is adequate nutrition. Important guide lines are as follows:

A. Eat a variety of foods to assure sufficient amounts of necessary carbohydrates, proteins vitamins and minerals. A balanced diet has portions of the four basic groups of foods; cereals (rice, bread, other wheat products); vegetables; protein rich foods (meat, fish, bean products) and dairy foods (milk, cheese, yogurt). This combination will provide all the nutrients needed for regular health.

B. Maintain an ideal weight. Extra weight is very stressful for one's heart and vascular system. This is a special problem for people who work in sedentary occupations. Moderation in eating and regular exercise are the keys to maintaining your optimum weight.

C. Limit the amount of fats and oils in the diet. These are stored in the body as fatty tissue and are difficult to use for energy, so they tend to remain as extra weight. The best oils for cooking are unsaturated vegetable oils. Fish oils have been found to be helpful for reducing cholesterol levels.

D. Eat food with starch and fiber. Starch, available in rice, wheat and potatoes is a better source of carbohydrates than processed sugar or fats. Fiber, a constituent of rice, oats, other grains, and some fruits and vegetables, is necessary for good digestion. High fiber diets help prevent colon cancer.

E. Avoid processed sugar. The natural sugars in fruits and from the starchy foods are the best sources of sugar. Processed sugar is a leading cause of tooth decay and middle age diabetes.

F. Avoid too much sodium. Sodium is present in table salt and in many pickled and processed foods; sodium nitrate is a common preservative in meat and in monosodium glutamate (MSG). The soy sauces, fish sauces and MSG are common sources of sodium in Asian foods.

G. Drink alcohol in moderation if at all. There is evidence that alcohol in any amount is dangerous for pregnant women and their unborn children.

H. Here are some suggestions about nutrition and diet. In many countries, packaged foods carry nutritional labeling. These can guide your food selections. If labeling is not available, then get information through nutrition literature. The Department of Health or its equivalent in most countries has such information available. Avoid health and diet fads such as extreme vitamin doses, all-liquid diets, all-protein diets, etc. Like everything else vitamins should be taken in moderation. Some vitamins such as vitamins A and D are toxic when taken in excess. Like sugars, the best source of vitamins are in natural foods. Suppliments are most useful for pregnant and nursing women as well as children and others with special needs.

2. Along with nutrition, sleep is necessary for good health. Sleep is a time when the metabolic poisons of activity can be cleared away. The mind is also regenerated during sleep. There is a special type of sleep, which occurs during dreams, called R.E.M. (rapid eye movement) sleep. This is very important as an antidote to stress. Denied this portion of sleep, a person will become increasingly irritable. There is evidence that the irritablity which some women experience with menstration could be due to a greater need for sleep.

3. Exercise is another need which modern urban life often does not provide for adequately. Strenuous exercise such as jogging, swimming or aerobic dancing causes the heart, lungs and vascular system to work at their peak. Over a period of time constant exercise will increase the capacity of heart and lungs to provide oxygen and nutriants to the muscles.

II. Mental health is as essential as physical health. A person's personality and attitude towards life are important components in her level of stress. A couple of examples may illustrate this point. Show several people a glass with water to the halfway point and ask what they see. One person will say "A half full glass of water", another will say "A half empty glass". The first answer indicates on optimistic outlook on life while the second answer is more pessimistic. One person looks at life in terms of opportunities and future possibilies and doesn't dwell on past failures. Another sees the past in terms of lost opportunities, is jealous of her peers success and expects only failure. The second individual may be far more stressed in the same situation then the first. One's personality can be another source of stress. The so-called "type A" is one such example. Type A people are self-driven, highly competitive, time oriented people. In contrast, type B people are more relaxed, easy going and not so hurried. Type A people are a positive force in society. They are often the people that get things done, but they do so at a high price to themselves and their families. Positive psychological techniques for dealing with stress include cognitive methods, relaxation and diversions. Negative techniques should be avoided. These include reliance on drugs, alcohol or tobacco when stressed as well as psychological defense mechanisms such as denial (of reality), projection of one's faults on others and rationalizing one's behavior.

1. First we will discuss cognitive methods, which include stress management, attitude modification, goal setting, avoidance, mental rehearsals (visualization) and acceptance.

A. Stress management means actively taking control of your life. You do this by identifying and then minimizing stressful elements. We have already discussed ways in which one's diet, nutrition and attention to physical health can reduce stress. After this, examine the activities of your daily life as well as stressful life changes; i. e. moving residence, marriage, changing employment, etc. You should recognize that positive as well as negative changes are stressful. Arrange these stressful situations in your life if you can, so they do not occur at the same time. A teacher might avoid other demands on her time at the first week of the school year when she is busy getting her classes in order. Plan for some "unscheduled" time. There should be enough time for adequate sleep and relaxation and exercise each day; time in the week for avocations, reading, volunteer activities, sports or hobbies; and times in the year for vacations.

B. Attitude modification is another cognitive technique. Basically this covers the way a person interacts and responds to their world. Examples are the following:

Be optimistic.
Look for the positive elements realistically in situations.(when life gives you lemons, make lemonade.)
Don't dwell on past failures, appreciate the present.
Don't regard yourself in terms of others but in terms of your own needs and hopes.
Don't let other people define you.
Create opportunities for yourself.

Akin to this is assertiveness. Assertiveness training teaches you to defend your personality in your social contact with others, by emphasizing your right to say "no" to others demands, by stressing your own responsibility for your decisions and your right to change them, by declaring that you are the final judge of your actions.

C. Goal setting is the selection of desired ends based on an assessment of your resources and capabilities. Good goal setting must be based on realistic possibilities. Setting goals on the expectation of winning the lottery is unrealistic planning. As your situation changes your goals may become improbable or no longer desirable. From time to time you can reassess your goals.

D. Avoidance and evasion can be useful methods. Evasion is delaying a stressful situation, to give more time to deal with it at the time of one's choice. Scheduling appointments is a common form of evasion. An extreme form of evasion is avoidance, that is staying away from stressful situations. The problem with both are that they can reduce your freedom of action. For example, putting off an interview might give the job to someone else. Avoiding work at night limits your employment opportunities.

E. Mental reahersal (visualization) and preparation are another way to meet anticipated stressors such as meetings with difficult people, interviews, speeches and dangerous situations. Anticipate the possiblities and plan actions to counter them. Rehearse either mentally or, if possible, do a dry run. You will be more confident of your ability to cope with the situation. You can prepare for an anticipated situation by trying to make it less stressful.
One woman might attend night classes while working or raising children to secure the professional occupation that she wants. Another woman who is the victim of sexual harrassment at work may take legal action after careful preparation. A woman who must walk in an unsafe area after dark might take self defense (martial arts) classes or carry mace tear gas. These are examples of action taken that reduces the stress in a situation.

F. Acceptance Part of stress management is to determine what can be changed and what cannot. Acceptance is necessary where there is little or no chance of changing the situation. For example aging or the death of someone close to you, your husband or child. Once you accept something, you will feel much better and can have a new life again.

2. Relaxation counteracts the effects of stress. There are a variety of ways to relax. There include mental displines such as hypnosis, meditation, tension relaxation and the trendy biofeedback as well as physical means like heat, catharsis and massage.

A. Hypnosis and meditation Two related techniques of induced relaxation are hypnosis and meditation. Hypnosis is a state of deep relaxation and altered awareness which may be induced by another person or by oneself. Susceptability to hypnosis varies from person to person. Some people can be hypnotized so deeply as not to feel the pain of dental work while others are fairly resistant and cannot be hypnotized at all. Hypnosis has many uses such as enhancing memory, behavior modification, psychiatric therapy and relaxation. Self hypnosis is rather simple and easily learned. One method is to sit in a comfortable chair in a darkened room and concentrate on a flickering candle. While doing so, you relax your body one part at a time - your toes, then your feet, then the lower legs - until your whole body is relaxed. After twenty minutes or so you are completely relaxed. Somewhat similar is meditation. Although a part of many religions, both western and eastern, meditation is not religious, per se. As with hypnosis, one should assume a comfortable position with no distractions. One common method of meditation employs the use of a mantra, that is, a chosen word such as "blue", or "sky" or "love", which is recited and concentrated on to the exclusion of all other sensation. After twenty minutes or so the meditator gradually returns from the meditative state.

B. Tension - Relaxation: Another relaxation technique, long used by actors to combat stage fright is tension-relaxation. Quite simply, you tense groups of muscles, starting with your fingers or toes for ten seconds then you relax them. After this you go to the next part of your body and do the same until the whole body is relaxed.

C. Tai Chi is a Chinese form of relaxation exercise is one of the Martial Arts. It is characterized by slow, flowing, rhythmic movements and stylized stances. Each exercise has a theme, such "white stork displays wings."

D. Biofeedback A high tech relaxation method is biofeedback. A person is monitored by equipment similar to an electroencephalograph which records their alpha waves (brain waves indicative of relaxation), muscle tenson or blood pressure. The measured characteristic is expressed in a visual or auditory manner, such as lines on a video screen or as a musical tone of sound. The subject can learn to control something they cannot see or hear such as alpha waves or muscle tension.

E. A physical means of relaxation is the application of heat. Heat in the form of warm bath, hot tub, warm shower Jacuzzi bath, saunas, steam room and hot pads can be very relaxing. One should be careful not to overdo it though.

F. Catharsis or "Letting off steam" is another way to negate stress. Energetic physical activity such as exercise, a brisk walk, jogging or competive sports provides release when you are tensed up, ready to fight or flee but not able to do either. Laughing, crying and "primal screams" are catharic in nature.

G. Therapuetic massage in its various forms is an excellent way to relax tense and aching muscles. There are a variety of massage techniques including Swedish (whole body), facial massage, scalp massage as well as devices such as massage chairs, vibrators hydromassage and water piks. Asian techniques of massage include Shiatsu, acupressure, and Tui Na or Chinese massage. These methods, easy to learn and apply, are effective for the relief of pain and tension. They are based on traditional Chinese medical theories concerning the relationship of elemental forces, Yin and Yang, within the body. The balance of these forces is achieved by the flow of energy, Chi, along twelve meridians within the body. Force is applied at points along these meridians to bring about relief from pain and facilitate healing. Acupuncture, a related healing art, is now recognized in the West for its effectiveness in the relief of short and long term pain.

3. Diversions, escapes, avocations and vacations are another way to ease stress. Escape for one person might be an hour with an enjoyable book. Many find escape through television and motion pictures. Gardening is yet another popular escape. The late British Prime Minister, Sir Winston Churchill found his escape from the stresses of leading his country during the war in painting. A vacation is recognized as an essential need for workers in many countries. A good vacation should get you away from your work and home responsibilities and let you have a week or two to yourself in a different environment.

III. Support from others. We are social creatures. As the saying goes "No man is an island". At some time all of us need a helping hand.

1. A valuable resource for coping with stress are those people who are close to you; family, relatives and friends whom you can talk to, who can provide support when it is needed. Likewise you can be part of another persons "safety net". Many problems are more resolvable when met and countered together.

2. There are some problems that require professional help. You should have a good layperson's knowledge of your body so that you can detect the signs of a health problem. Despite good nutrition, sleep and exercise, people still become ill. Small ailments can be self medicated, but inevitably some will require medical attention. Every woman should have a regular check up, with pap smear and mammogram as well as doing a monthly breast self examination. Early detection is important in the successful treatment of breast, uterine and other cancers. You should be careful in the selection of a health care provider or counselor. Many people put more care into the selection of a car than of their doctor.

I have disscussed stress and its causes, its impact on the lives of working women and ways that we can reduce or neutralize it. Each of us is an unique individual with our strengths, weaknesses and needs. Each of us can profit from assessing the stressful elements in our life, and take action to build a pathway to a better, healthier and more effective life.

Schedule of Recent Experience
Part A

Instructions: Think back on each possible life event listed below, and decide if it happened to you within the last year. If the event did happen, check the box next to it.

	Check here if event happened to you	Mean Value (Use for scoring later)
1. A lot more or a lot less trouble with the boss.	____	____
2. A major change in sleeping habits (sleeping a lot more or a lot less, or change in part of day when asleep)	____	____
3. A major change in eating habits(a lot more or a lot less food intake, or very different meal hours or surroundings).	____	____
4. A revision of personal habits (dress, manners, associations, etc.).	____	____
5. A major change in your usual type and/or amount of creation.	____	____
6. A major change in your social activities (clubs, dancing, movies, visiting, etc.).	____	____
7. A major change in church activities (a lot more or a lot less than usual).	____	____
8. A major change in number of family get-togethers (a lot more or a lot less than usual).	____	____
9. A major change in financial state (a lot worse off or a lot better off than usual).	____	____
10. In-law troubles.	____	____
11. A major change in the number of arguments with spouse (a lot more or a lot less than usual regarding child-rearing, personal habits, etc.).	____	____
12. Sexual difficulties.	____	____

Schedule of Recent Experience

Part B

Instructions: In the space provided, indicate the number of times that each applicable event happened to you within the last two years.

	Number of times	X	Mean Value	=	Your score
13. Major personal injury or illness.	______		______		______
14. Death of a close family member (other than spouse).	______		______		______
15. Death of spouse.	______		______		______
16. Death of a close friend.	______		______		______
17. Gaining a new family member (through birth, adoption, oldster moving in, etc.).	______		______		______
18. Major change in the health or behavior of a family member.	______		______		______
19. Change in residence.	______		______		______
20. Detention in jail or other institution.	______		______		______
21. Minor violations of the law (traffic tickets, jaywalking, disturbing the peace, etc.).	______		______		______
22. Major business readjustment(merger, reorganization, bankruptcy, etc.).	______		______		______
23. Marriage.	______		______		______
24. Divorce.	______		______		______
25. Marital separation from spouse.	______		______		______
26. Outstanding personal achievement.	______		______		______
27. Son or daughter leaving home (marriage, attending college, etc.).	______		______		______
28. Retirement from work.	______		______		______
29. Major change in working hours or condition.	______		______		______
30. Major change in responsibilities at work (promotion, demotion, lateral transfer).	______		______		______
31. Being fired from work.	______		______		______
32. Major change in living conditions (building a new home, remodeling, deterioration of home or neighborhood).	______		______		______

	Number of times	X	Mean Value	=	Your Score
33. Husband/ Wife beginning or ceasing work outside the home.	______		______		______
34. Taking on a mortgage greater than $100,000 (purchasing a home, business, etc.).	______		______		______
35. Taking on a mortgage or loan or less than $10,000 (purchasing a car, TV, freezer, etc.).	______		______		______
36. Foreclosure.	______		______		______
37. Vacation.	______		______		______
38. Changing to a new school.	______		______		______
39. Changing to a different line of work.	______		______		______
40. Beginning or ceasing formal schooling.	______		______		______
41. Marital reconciliation with mate.	______		______		______
42. Pregnancy	______		______		______
			Your total score		______

Scoring

The "Mean Values" for each life event are listed below. Write in the mean values for those events that happened to you. For items in Part B, multiply the mean value by the number of times an event happened, and enter the result in "Your score."

Add up the mean values in Part A and your scores in Part B to get your total scores.

Life Event	Mean Value
1	23
2	16
3	15
4	24
5	19
6	18
7	19
8	15
9	38
10	29
11	35
12	39

Life Event	Mean Value
13	53
14	63
15	100
16	37
17	39
18	44
19	20
20	63
21	11
22	39
23	50
24	73
25	65
26	28
27	29
28	45
29	20
30	29
31	47
32	25
33	26
34	31
35	17
36	30
37	13
38	20
39	36
40	26
41	45
42	40

The more change you have, the more likely you are to get sick. Of those people with a score of over 300 for the past year, almost 80 percent get sick in the near future; with a score of 150 to 299, about 50 percent get sick in the near future; with a score of less than 150, only about 30 percent get sick in the near future, the higher your score the harder you should work to stay well.

Stress can be cumulative. Events from two years ago may still be affecting you now. If you think this applies to you, repeat this test for the events of the preceeding year and compare your scores.

COUNSELING THE MILITARY IN AN ASIAN CULTURE

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The University of Maryland has maintained a counselor education program leading to an M. Ed. degree in counseling on Okinawa, Japan since 1968. It is the only counselor education program in Asia. It is directed by a Resident Graduate Professor who also teaches in the program and supervises the practicum students in their interships.

Okinawa contains the largest number of military personnel outside the United States. There is one Marine Base containing 5 Marine camps, one Air Force Base, one Army Base and a Naval Base on Okinawa. The program serves active duty military and dependents from all of these services and currently has over 80 active students. All students must have a Bachelor's Degree and have maintained an overall 3.0 GPA in their undergraduate studies. They are approved for admission by the Dean of the School of Education, University of Maryland, College Park. The program is designed to be completed in two years which is the normal length of duty on Okinawa.

The only full time employee of the University of Maryland is the Resident Graduate Professor, who hires other M.D. or Ph. D instructors from the active duty military psychiatrists, clinical psychologists and counseling psychologists serving in military family service centers, family advocacy centers, drug and alcohol rehabilitation centers, the psychiatric ward of the Naval Hospital and Joint Services Correctional Facility(Brig).

Practicum students in the counseling program are assigned to one of the counseling centers listed above and have a clinical supervisor on the site, as well as, the supervision of the the Resident Graduate Professor.

The problems of working in the military the military environment located in an Asian Culture provides unique counseling experiences dealing with a variety of problems not found in, but applicable to, other environments. Many problems encountered are not typical of those found in other environments.

Thousands of military personnel and dependents are assigned to the Air Force, Marine, Army and Navy bases on the island. While some of these people have on base housing many live off base. There is a great deal of interaction with the Okinawans who, although living in a Japanese Prefecture, also have a strong cultural tie to China. The military members have frequent temporary duty assignments in The Philippines, Korea, Mainland Japan, and Guam with long periods of time away from their families. Some of these assignments can be for months at a time and can happen at a moments notice witg the family members, in some cases, unaware of exactly where the active duty member is. There are times when there can be no correspondance between the active duty member and his/her family. In addition some military personnel may be on an unaccompanied tour for as long as two years.

Service men who are on an unaccompanied tour often have a difficult time adjusting to family life when the family is re-united. The wife has had to manage the family and has learned a certain independence and may have a difficult time to adjust to a partner who wants, now, to be consulted on or want to take charge in making certain decisions. Children have moved into different developmental areas that are disturbing to the father, who in most cases, has been the absent parent and not been aware of the changes in the emotional and physical growth that has occured. These family members come for counseling and the counselor must assist them to understand why and what has happened and consider the family dynamics as well as the military rules that affect the family. Skilled listening and problem solving skills are needed and the goal is to not only deal with the presenting problem but to train the family members strategies to deal with the problem again when it inevitabley occurs. Cases such as this sometimes developes into spousal and child abuse which must be handled by another agency.

Military life is particularly difficult for the dependent wife whose husband is whisked to the next assignment and she is left to pack the furniture, and make decisions as to what items to bring, which ones to store and what materials to get rid of poses a problem not encountered by most civilian wives. The process of checking the children out of schools and attempting to make the children feel comfortable about leaving their friends is for the most part the responsibility of the dependent wife. The wife also finds herself without an identity since she must use her husband's social security number to start a bank account and get a library card.

Misconduct by the children can cause great hardship on the child and the parent. The dependents' right to stay on Okinawa is a privilege, ot an entitlement.

There are several alternatives that can be taken to discipline a juvenile defender depending on the severity of the misconduct. The violator can be issued an official warning, restricted to family quarters, lose exchange privileges, be denied access to military installations on Okinawa or be referred to the local command for removal from the island. About half of the misconduct cases involve drugs. The majority of cases involve codeine based cough syrup whidh can be bought over the counter in Japanese drug stores. The hard drugs found in the United States are very rare here.

In one year, 10 to 20 dependents are returned to the United States. Of these most are under the age of 18. Often, the parents have to pay large amounts of money to put these children in private schools or have someone care for them in the United States.

Military personnel who are married to Asian spouses often come to counseling because of the difference in expectations of the married partners and the added dimension of language barriers. An added problem is the Asian spouse's expectation that the husband will take care of the wife's parents and younger siblings. Since it is against the Status of Forces Agreement that any materials be purchased at the commissary and the base exchange for members of the extended family, military spouses are sometimes placed in
an awkward position and more than one Asian spouse, who also has and I.D. card to use these facilities has been observed buying, for instance, 50 pound bags of rice which, is suspect. The Asian culture expects this type of support from family members and it poses many problems. There is also pressure for the spouse to purchase clothes, equipment, liquor and other materials which are much less expensive in the military stores especially with the current strength of the Japanese yen in comparison to the dollor. There are harsh punitive measures for the active duty military person and the spouse. Practicum students have expert counseling skills and an awareness of the military regulaltions, the Status of Forces Agreement and the expectations of the Asian Culture.

There are many second marriages with the first marriage being to an American and the second marriage to an Asian. Men, especially, find Asian women much more accommodating to their wishes than their former American wives. There are also cases where the mixed couple to have been married for as long as 20 years, with several children and neither of the marriage partners knowing the other's language. The children speak to the mother in Japanese or Korean and to the father in English.

In one instance a man was married to an Asian woman and had 5 children. The wife on her dying bed urged her sister to marry the man to take care of the children. The sister did and cared for the man and children for five years. Neither wife knew English and the man does not speak Japanese. He now wants to divorce his Japanese wife to marry a Philippino who he has been living with, on occasion, for some time. The couple came for counseling. Since the counselor did not speak Japanese and she wanted to understand and talk to the wife, an interpreter was required. The man is now 50 years old and the wife is 30. She now loves her husband and the children and does not want a divorce. Furthermore, she feels she has given up 5 years of her life for this family. The children are supportive of the wife. Needless, to say the student counselor's counseling skills were taxed to the utmost. In this case the counselor, with a lawyer present, made the wife aware of her legal rights for support. In the military, no active duty member may get a divorce without going for at least one counseling session. Many clients want no counseling but are there to satisfy the military regulation.

Young military men between the ages of 18 and 22, who away from home for the first time, are lonely and on temporary duty in Korea or The Phillapines come home married after one week. They have met women in the bars who come from very poor homes and who are enthralled with the money and possibilities of being a wife of an American G.I. Many of these women are accoustomed to being with several men and began to get restless after a few months as a housewife. They find other women friends from their country and again go to bars and meet other men. This causes problems that end up in the counseling office.

These young service men find themselves with little to do on weekends but drink and end up in the alcohol rehabilitation centers. The denial of these men to the reality of being an alcoholic and doing without liquor or beer for the rest of their lives and attending A.A. meetings requires expert counseling and confrontation skills.

In the civilian world a person has an opportunity to make a mistake by taking a job or entering a school that is unsatisfying and then deciding to cut their losses, quit and make a career change. This is impossible in the military. These young people, right out of high school are told by recruiters that they can expect certain training and geographical assignements. Once they are inducted they find that the reality is much different than their expectations. Then, when they are dissatisfied, they find they cannot quit. They are stuck for four years. They are lonely, it is their first time away from home and they find themselves in a completely different culture. For the men, they find there are no eligible American women companions. They, in their frustration, find that Asian women are very accomodating and available. They date these women and find them fascinating. They enter into intimate relationships and feel they should marry them. The families of the women are usually opposed to the marriages and see themselves as losing their daughters. Before they marry, they must go through counseling but it is to satisfy a requirement rather than a sincere desire for counseling. The counselors, again, find they need a large repetoire of skills in their attempt to give these people the counseling that they do not want. The practicum counselor interns find that the statistical information regarding inter-cultural marriages very relevant but in many cases lost because the young people feel their situation will be different!

Young men soon learn that the only way they can leave the service is by committing a crime which will give them a dishonorable discharge. The most prevalent of these crimes is consciously writing bad checks. The counselors who are working in the brig in individual and group counseling find that there is no remorse but in fact elation that they are actually getting out! The counselees do not see the implications of this on their future employement once they are separated from the service. The counselors must attempt to provide these men with options for their lives after they are separated from the military. These men(almost all the prisoners are men) have a great deal of anger with the military and student counselors must use their knowledge of the group process to force the counselees to become aware of appropriate direction for their anger.

Young women who feel they have made a bad choice in enlisting in the military have another option not open to men. They can get pregnant. Contrary to the men, they find an ample supply of eligible men willing to assist them with their problem. The women can be separated from the military with a general discharge which has less negetive implications for future employment than a dishonorable one. However, again, the implications of their pregnancy on future employment, marriage and single parenting have for the most part not been considered by the counselee. Intern counselors again must have not only excellent counseling skills but information on educational and career counseling.

These problems, illustrate a few that are encountered by counselors doing practicum counseling in the military in an Asian Culture . The problems are magnified with the system of rank and the descrepencies in services available. Certain clubs are not available to enlisted men. Men with higher educational degrees are forced to take orders and salute men and women with less education. Wives are found to be treated according to the rank of their husbands. This all adds stress and humiliation beyond the ordinary stress of living.

Also many active duty military are afraid to go for counseling since it will go on their record and affect their future promotions. Even the counseling of a child or a spouse can affect the military career.

The students are introduced to a number of psychological theorists and their strategies. However, because of the variety of counseling situations that occur, there is a need for extensive supervision and counseling by the practicum supervisors. The students are encouraged to develop a speedy rapport since in many cases, the client or family may be quickly moved to another duty spot or the active duty member is sent on temporary duty somewhere else for an indefinity length of time.

Although the client center approach is used to develop this rapport and to discover the real problem, confrontive approaches and assignements for each member of the family before their next session are found to be effective.

With families the strategic family therapy approach is often found to be the most practical since it lends itself to short term therapy.

The practicum student usually develops a bag of tricks that enhances the development of coping skills within a short period of time.

This is a brief synopsis of the added problems and counseling skills needed to be effective in counseling the military person and their dependents in an Asian Culture. The practicum experience in this program is certainly the most intense that I have encountered in all of my years of supervising practicum students. I find that when the students leave this program they have had an experience that very adequately prepares them for almost any future counseling positions.

CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISONS OF COMMUNICATION STYLES

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Observations by the authors of differences in the communication styles of Japanese versus American students led to the present study. While teaching communication workshops in Japan the authors observed that Japanese students seem to prefer using their visual channel for representing their experience. In contrast, American students seem to prefer their auditory channel for representation of their experiences. To verify their subjective impressions, the authors collected self-report data on the preferred representational systems (PRS) of 212 Japanese subjects and 129 American subjects. The Japanese subjects consisted of 155 communication workshop participants who were in human services field and 38 scientists and engineers, 7 businessmen and 12 civil service empoyees. The American subjects consisted of graduate and undergraduate students in human services field and human service workers.

The present study sought to study the effect of nationality, gender, and ethnicity upon the self-reported preference for using one's visual, kinesthetic, auditory, or digital channels for representing experience. It was hypothesized that nationality (U.S. vs. Japan), gender (male vs. female), and ethnicity (American minority, white, or native Japanese) would have an effect on the expressed preferences for the four communication channels.

Many current communication theories hold that people differ in the way they think and communicate. Human communication is thought to be both multi-leveled and multi-channeled. The Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) model of communication developed by Bandler and Grinder (1975) states that people collect and store information in five sensory channels (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, gustatory, and olfactory). According to NLP "each one of these sensory inputs has physical places in our brains to which the experience is sent, processed, and recorded. This assimilation of the initial input transforms the experience into something different from the original stimulus. What we actually perceive are representations or models of what each of our sensory organs transmits to us." (Lewis and Pucelik, 1982, p. 32). Bandler and Grinder called these individual models of assimilation Representational Systems. The visual, auditory, and kinesthetic systems are considered to be the three major input channels and most of their discussions centered around these three systems (Bandler and Grinder, 1975). They stated that "we tend to use one or more of these representational systems as a map more often than the others. We also tend to have more distinctions available in our preferred representational system to code our experience." (Grinder & Bandler, 1976, p. 8).

The empirical studies attempting to validate the NLP assumptions about preferred representational systems present a mixed picture to date. They have been done in four basic areas: (1) verification of the existence of the PRS; (2) evaluation of the reliability of methods used to identify the PRS; (3) the examination of effectiveness in matching PRS predicates in counseling interviews; and (4) the utilization of matching PRS in noncounseling situations (Sharpley, 1984, pp. 238-248). In reviewing 44 empirical studies of NLP, Sharpley (1987) found only six which uncritically supported the NLP assumptions.

One study which supported the NLP principle of matching the client's predicates as a way to develop rapport was conducted by Yapko (January, 1989, pp. 169-175) who found that identifying and matching the PRS predicates enhanced rapport and influence in the use of hypnotic inductions. Another study by Hammer (1983) found that students whose counselors matched their PRS predicates rated their counselors higher on perceived empathy than did those in an unmatched condition.

Einspruch and Forman (1985) pointed out why it was difficult to do empirical research on NLP and they included a critique of three different methods of assessing a client's PRS. They critized a self-report method of assessing the PRS because it used sensory predicates in the abstract with no experiential context. The present study sought to remedy this defect by using a self-report questionnaire to assess PRS that described sensory choices in context.

Another way in which the present study sought to improve on prior ones is the addition of the digital system for representing experience. The digital system uses language and social/cultural rules and symbols to represent experience. While processing information in the visual system yields images or internal pictures, use of the auditory system uses sounds, tones, and internal dialogue, and use of the kinesthetic system utilizes somatic sensations, movement, proprioception, and tactile experiences (Bandler and Grinder, 1979, Chapter 1), the digital system does not relate to any of these sensory channels and is disassociated from feelings. In fact, Lewis and Pucelik (1982, p. 56) suggest that the use of the digital system may be a defensive way of coping with unpleasant feelings.

The self-report questionnaire used in the present study, the Representational Bias Test (RSBT), was developed by Lewis and Pucelik (1982, pp. 137-138). It asks students to rank their preference for four PRS: (1) Visual, (2) Auditory, (3) Kinesthetic, and (4) Digital. A brief description of these four communication styles is given below:

1. The Visual Processor makes important decisions based on what looks best; is most likely to be influenced during an argument by the ability to see the other's point of view; communicates what is going on inside him by the way he dresses; finds it easy to select rich color combinations; and has a strong response to colors and the way a room looks.
2. The Auditory Processor makes important decisons based on which way sounds the best; is influenced during an argument by the other's tone of voice; most easily communicates what is going on inside by the tone of voice; finds it easy to find the ideal volume and tuning on a stereo system; and is very attuned to the surrounding sounds.
3. The Kinesthetic Processor makes important decisons based on gut level feelings; is most influenced during an argument by being in touch with the other's true feelings; most easily communicates what is going on inside by sharing feelings; finds it easy to select comfortable furniture; and is very sensitive to the way articles of clothing feel.
4. The Digital Processor makes important decisions based on precise diligent study of the issues; is most influenced during an argument by the logic of the other's argument; communicates what is going on inside by the words chosen; finds it easy to select the most intellectually relevant points; and is very adept at making sense of new facts and data.

METHOD OF THE STUDY

A brief self-report measure of PRS called The Representational System Bias Test (RSBT) (Lewis & Pucelik, 1982, pp. 137-138) was given to a total of 341 subjects. It was translated by Dr. Tanaka and Mr. Satoru Nishizawa into Japanese for ease of use by Japanese subjects. The sample consisted of 212 Japanese subjects and 129 American subjects. Among the Japanese samples there were 155 Children's Home Workers, Social Workers, and Child Guidance Workers who participated in basic and advanced interviewing skills workshops given by the authors and 38 scientists and engineers, 7 businessmen and 12 civil service employees who agreed to respond to a questionnaire distributed at their work place. The American subjects consisted of 83 white and 46 ethnic minority students and human service workers. The American ethnic minority group consisted of 8 Blacks, 13 Chinese-Americans, 7 Hispanics, 2 Japanese-Americans, 9 Korean-Americans, 4 East Indian-Americans, and 4 other ethnic minority students.

The RSBT was hand-scored and coded by the authors. The RSBT yielded numerical scores for the Visual, Kinesthetic, Auditory, and Digital Systems that indicated the subject's ranked preference for a PRS. The data was analyzed by the SPSS/PC multiple and univariate analysis of variance programs to test for the effect of nationality, ethnicity, and gender upon the RSBT scores.

FINDINGS

The multivariate analysis of variance tests were found to be highly significant (P=.001) for the nationality effect, very significant (P=.018) for the gender effect, significant (P=.056) for the ethnicity effect, and non-significant (P=.313) for the combined effect of ethnicity and gender.

The mean PRS scores for each subgroup analyzed are shown in Table 1 below with their corresponding univariate F-test and P value.

Table 1

Mean RSBT Scores and Univariate F-tests for Nationality

RSBT Score:	341 Total	129 U.S.A.	212 Japanese	F-test
Visual	11.67	11.49	11.78	1.01 NS
Kinesthetic	13.39	13.71	13.19	3.17 NS
Auditory	11.43	12.03	11.07	9.26 S
Digital	13.54	12.82	13.99	10.01 S

Table 2 below shows the mean RSBT scores and corresponding univariate F-test and P value for men and women classified by ethnicity.

Table 2

Mean RSBT Scores and Univariate F-Tests for Gender and Ethnicity

RSBT Score	20 Minority		107 Japanese		66 White		F-test	P
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
Visual	11.55	11.53	11.32	12.24	10.41	11.74	4.35	S
Kinesthetic	12.90	13.07	12.98	13.41	13.58	14.22	1.35	NS
Auditory	12.05	12.00	11.31	10.81	11.70	12.12	0.01	NS
Digital	14.30	12.88	14.44	13.52	14.06	12.03	9.92	S

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The results of the multivariate F-tests indicated that nationality (U.S. Japanese) did have a highly significant effect upon the RSBT scores. The results of Table 1 show that this was due to the higher Digital score for the Japanese subjects and the higher Auditory score for the American subjects.

The gender effect was found to be very significant and as shown in Table 2 was due to the higher Digital score for males in all three ethnic subgroups, and to a lesser extent the higher Visual score for females in the Japanese.

The Ethnicity effect was found to be significant and as shown in Table 2 was due to the higher Auditory scores for American Minority men and women and white women.

It is interesting to note that both Japanese men and women had the highest mean Digital score of the three ethnic groups compared. As described earlier in this article, a Digital processor tends to disassociate from his or her feelings as a way of coping with unpleasant emotions. It is likely that a high level of disassociation from feelings and depersonalization is necessary for the Japanese to cope with the stress of Westernization and rapid technological change in their society. Additionally, the cultural heritage of shunning open expression of feelings might play into the tendency for disassociation from feelings.

The higher Auditory score made by both the American subgroups may reflect the emphasis on phonics in English, while the lower Auditory score for the Japanese may reflect their emphasis upon visual cues in written and auditory communication. This possability is further supported by a comparison of the RSBT score patterns shown in Table 1. The Americans tend to process information in a KDAV pattern in contrast to the Japanese DKVA pattern. This difference in communication patterns may be due to differences in the linguistic structure of their respective cultures. Auditory cues are more important in the acquisition of English language while visual cues are central to the learning of Japanese.

The relatively high Kinesthetic scores in both the American and Japanese groups probably reflects the largely human service occupations of the subjects where there is a strong emphasis placed upon understanding and working with feelings. A more diverse sample of occupational as well as ethnic groups is needed to make generalizations about PRS differences.

Because of the lack of representative samples of each ethnic group tested in this study, any conclusions drawn must be tentative. However, the statistically significant differences in PRS among the ethnic samples in the study suggest that interesting differences may exist among ethnic groups in their ways of processing information. Knowledge of such ethnic and cultural differences in communication patterns would assist counselors, therapists, and other human service workers to establish better rapport with clients from diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds, particulary at the initial phase of the counseling process. This is especially important since approximately 50% of ethnic minority clients terminate counseling sessions after only one contact as contrasted with a 30% termination rate for White clients (research summarized by Sue, 1981, p. 27). In addition to establishing better initial rapport with minroty clients, continued pacing of the client's process pattern will likely enhance communication and make therapeutic interventions more powerful and effective.

If larger and more representative samples of major ethnic as well as occupational groups can be obtained, it may be possible to determine with more confidence the differences in PRS among ethnic groups. If such differences prove to be real, further study of possible developmental stages in the use of PRS may be worthwhile. Such information would be useful not only to counselors but also to teachers of ethnically diverse groups of children.

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ADOLESCENT DRUG USERS IN HONG KONG

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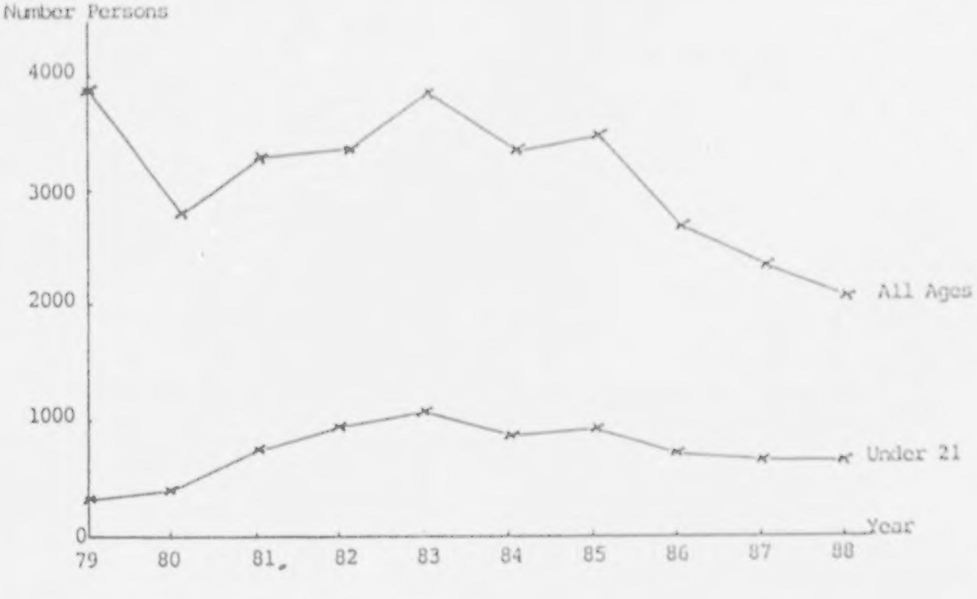
THE PROBLEM

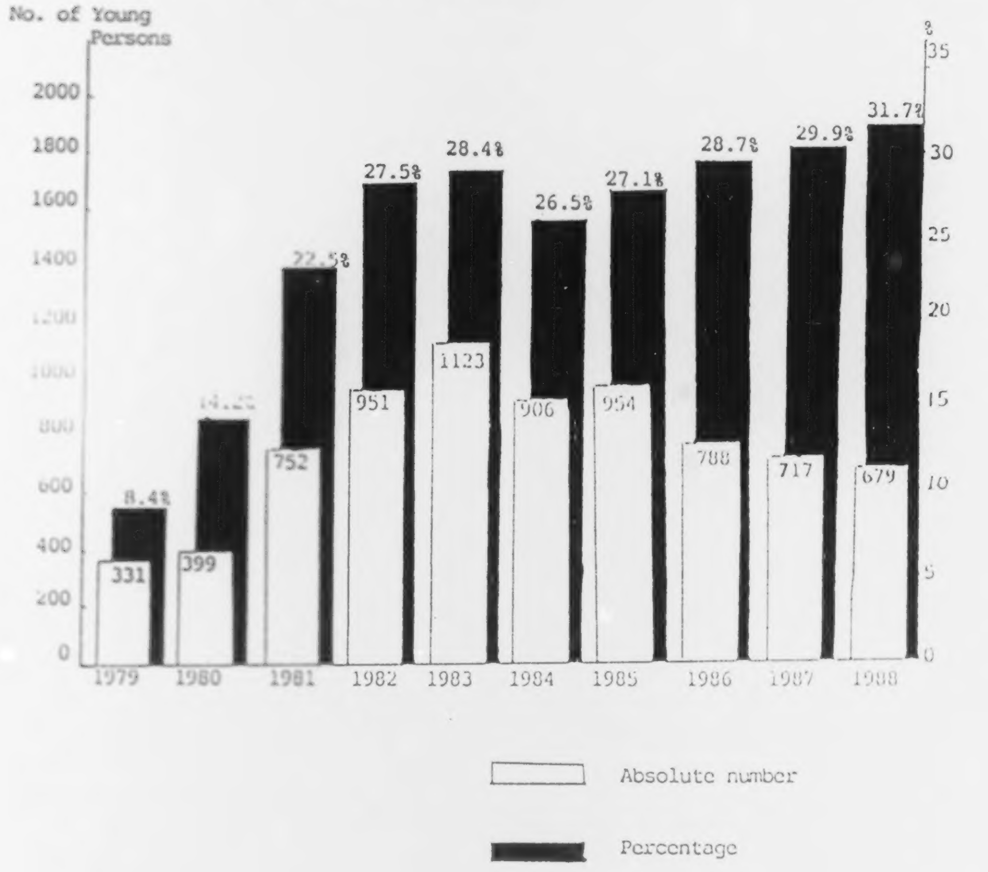
The problem of drug abuse among adolescents is an area of increasing concern to professional social workers and counsellors in Hong Kong. According to the information provided by Central Registry of Drug Abuse (CRDA), there is a downward trend in the total number of persons newly reported to the Registry during the past ten years, but the number of young persons (under 21 years old) newly reported to the CRDA has increased (Figures 1 and 2).

Fig. 1 NEWLY REPORTED TO CRDA 1979-1988



Source : Central Registry of Drug Abuse

Fig. 2 Number and Proportion of Young Persons Aged under 21 amongst Persons Newly Reported to CRDA, 1979-1988



A detailed study on the newly reported young persons in 1988 revealed that 30.2% of them took heroin as their primary drug of abuse, 24.6% took methaqualone (Mandrax, Mx), 31.3% took cannabis, and the remaining 13.9% took other drugs. In comparison with information obtained in previous years, there are indications that the abuse by young persons of psychotropic substances in increasing (Hong Kong Narcotics Report, 1988, pp. 101-2).

In order to obtain information on the extent of psychotropic substance abuse among secondary school students in Hong Kong, the Action Committee Against Narcotics (ACAN) conducted a large scale survey in 1987. A total of some 110,000 students in secondary schools and technical institutes were surveyed. The study showed that 1.1% of the secondary school students and 2.8% of the technical institute students had abused psychotropic substances, mainly Mandrax, cannabis and Secondal. 66.8% of the reported drug abusers in secondary schools and 95.4% of the reported drug abusers in technical institutes were males. This study also revealed that students who had abused psychotropic substances most likely started with Mandrax and at an age between 12 and 17. They obtained the drugs mainly from their friends, neighbours and relatives. 42% of secondary school students and 31.3% of technical institute students are regular drug abusers (1987 Survey on the Abuse of Psychotropic Substances among Students of Secondary Schools and Technical Institutes, pp. 7-8 and pp. 10-11).

In 1988, two further studies were conducted by the CRDA to ascertain the socio-demographic characteristics of the Mandrax abusers and cannabis abusers reported to the CRDA between January 1983 and June 1987. A total of 679 persons were reported to have abused Mandrax in the study period. Among them, 446 took Mandrax as a primary drug of abuse and another 233 as a secondary drug of abuse. The majority of the reported Mandrax abusers were males (64.2%) and were under 21 years old (69%). Besides, 66% of all Mandrax abusers were reported to have received at least seven years of schooling, but 93% of them had not received any form of vocational training (Hong Kong Narcotics Report, 1988, p. 102).

With regard to the study on cannabis abusers reported to the CRDA between January 1983 and June 1987, a total of 188 persons were reported to have abused cannabis during the study period. Among them, 48 used it as a primary drug of abuse and 109 as their secondary drug. The majority of the reported cannabis abusers were males (73.4%) and were under 21 years old (54%). Besides, 71% of all cannabis abusers claimed to have received at least seven years of schooling but 89% of them had not received any form of vocational training (Hong Kong Narcotics Report, 1988, p. 103).

This paper will be focused on the abuse of psychotropic substances (mainly Mandrax and cannabis) by adolescents. We shall discuss our experience of working with some adolescents who are Mandrax and/or cannabis users.

OUTREACHING SOCIAL WORK WITH ADOLESCENTS WHO ABUSE PSYCHOTROPIC SUBSTANCES

According to studies on Mandrax abusers and cannabis abusers conducted by the CRDA in 1988, 51% of the Mandrax abusers and 42% of the cannabis abusers were reported by outreaching social work teams (Hong Kong Narcotics Report, 1988, pp. 102-3). This shows the important contribution of outreaching social work teams in making early identification of, and intervention to, the use of psychotropic substances among young persons.

In Hong Kong, outreaching social work was incepted in 1979. It is an outreaching approach that social workers used to contact and work with young people who are 'at risk' for being exposed to undesirable influences in their social environment. According to the Working Group on Priority Areas coordinated by the Hong Kong Council of Social Service, 1987, three criteria are used to identify priority areas for outreaching social work service. They are : high population density, high percentage of youth population and high rate of juvenile delinquency. Based on these criteria, 22 outreaching social work teams have been formed. A standard outreaching social work team serves a population of 100,000 people. It consists of 1 team leader and 9 social workers.

The Caritas outreaching social work team in Wong Tai Sin was formed in October 1988. According to the 1986 By-census statistics, Wong Tai Sin is the 5th most densely populated district in Hong Kong. It has a total population of 430,000 people and an average population density of 46,000 people per square kilometre. In terms of youth population, it is the 3rd highest district in Hong Kong, with 34% of its total population at the age of 5 to 24 years. Wong Tai Sin district also has a high rate of juvenile delinquency. It ranks 6th amongst all districts in Hong Kong. In the year 1986, a total of 1,006 youngsters in the district were persecuted.

As outreaching social workers, we make initial contacts with our clients in street corners, playgrounds, fast-food shops, TV games centers and such other places where young people are known to frequent. Our targets are mainly school drop-outs or potential school drop-outs who may be associated with gangs, and members of natural groups or street gangs who have developed social maladjustment and behaviour problems which may be socially undesirable, delinquent or self-destructive (Operation Manual for Outreaching Social Workers, 1983, p. 1).

Some of our clients are Mandrax and/or cannabis users. Most of them are males of 13 to 17 years of age. The majority have not yet completed junior secondary education; they are school drop-outs or potential school drop-outs. They also do not have stable employment; some only engage in unskilled work irregularly. These characteristics are quite similar to those reported in other studies mentioned above.

Whereas the socio-demographic characteristics of adolescent substance users can somewhat be identified, the causes of their substance use are complex and can hardly be fully understood. Personal and family problems, peer influence, adolescent rebellion, insecurity and boredom, etc. are some of the classic reasons advanced to explain their substance use. From our experience of working with clients who are Mandrax and/or cannabis users, we find that adolescents' substance use is associated with their numerous problems as mentioned above. In each occasion of drug use, there is a number of precipitating factors, of which the main four factors are the availability of friends, the substance and time, and their perceptions of the consequences of substance-taking.

All our clients who are Mandrax and/or cannabis users belong to or are associated with gangs. Within each gang, members influence one another's interests and life styles because they do most of their recreational activities together. Thus when one member starts to take a certain drug, its use will spread to other members through peer contacts. Most clients consider drug-taking as one of the many recreational activities they do together. They enjoy getting high when they are with friends.

Other than the availability of friends who enjoy the same activity, adolescents' substance use also depends on the availability of the substance for use. Basically drug sales are illegal, but within the group of users there are channels for them to obtain the drug they use, such as through their friends, acquaintances, or friends of friends. Some groups use various drugs (e.g. Mandrax and cannabis). When the supply of a certain drug they use falls or when its price goes up, these groups shift to use the more readily available or less expensive ones. Other groups nevertheless prefer one drug more than others; they will adjust their usage frequency as a result of changes in supply.

The availability of time (i.e. having nothing to do) is another important factor in adolescent substance use. As we mentioned, most of our clients who are Mandrax and/or cannabis users are school drop-outs and are without regular employment. They have plenty of time available, but they have nothing to do. 'Hanging out' in a gang is enjoyable, but they still need a variety of activities to fill their time together. When drugs are readily available, , it provides them with an option of having something to do.

Finally, adolescents' substance use is also significantly affected by their own percpetions of the consequences of substance-taking. On this issue, we notice that most of our clients who are currently using Mandrax and/or cannabis are quite unaware of the negative effects of these substances. They regard their substance use as a part of their peer interactions and is not harmful. Some also believe that substance use can improve their social interaction and sociability.

These four factors influencing adolescent substance use are highly associated with numerous other problems our clients face in their daily lives. For instance, the factor of availability of time by adolescents may be related to other problems such as inadequate family supervision lack of alternative schooling and vocational training places for school dropouts, and their own lack of satisfaction in engaging in socially approved activities, etc. These four factors are inter-related and are associated with other problems forming an intermingled person-in-situation configuration. A holistic understanding of, and a comprehensive social work intervention into, adolescent substance users and their environment should be adopted.

Our social workers bearing with a holistic orientation provide various services to clients with the risks of substance use. Recreational activities such as outings and ball games are provided so as to occupy their leisure time in a more constructive way. Job opportunities or/and school placements are arranged for the school drop-outs and counselling on problems of undesirable peer/gang influences, poor relationship with family is also rendered.

However, we find that it is difficult to engage our clients in talking about their substance use, not to mention to provide counselling for them on this area. At least two reasons may help to explain this

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phenomenon. Firstly, substance use is illegal and generally not approved by dominant social values. Some clients are reluctant to talk about their substance use with us probably because they do not want us to perceive them as "too problematic". Secondly, some clients also regard that social workers are inappropriate persons with whom to talk about their substance use because we do not share their background and experience. For these reasons, we are consciously looking for means to improve our competence in working with clients with risks of substance use.

INDUCING COGNITIVE DISSONANCE AS A MOTIVATOR OF ATTITUDINAL AND BEHAVIOUR CHANGE

Many social psychologists believe that most individuals have a fundamental motive for congitive consistency - that is, for consistency among one's thoughts about the world (Gergen & Gergen, 1981, p. 178). The assumption is that most people want their ideas to be related logically - it does not make sense to believe something is desirable or necessary while simultaneously believe its opposite. The most celebrated formulation of this position is Leon Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance (1957). According to this theory, when an individual holds two cognitions that are consistent to each other, he or she experiences a satisfying state of consonance. However, two (or more) cognitions that are inconsistent (one cognition implies the opposite of another) result in dissonance, an unpleasant state of arousal. Festinger argued that individuals will adjust their thinking or their behaviour to reduce the unsettling state of cognitive dissonance.

In the case of adolescent substance users who posses biased perceptions of the consequences of substance use, this theory explains the phenomenon by suggesting that substance users are motivated to rationalize their behaviour. They therefore have a tendency to believe in only those information that supports their substance-taking choice while ignoring all other information that does not support it. However, if the magnitude of the dissonance is great, individuals will feel the pressure for change.

In the following, we shall discuss how we can apply the cognitive dissonance theory as a motivator to help our clients change their substance-taking attitudes and behaviour.

One intervention strategy that we have used is to induce cognitive dissonance to our cleints by exposing them to peer models who have stopped substance use. We implemented this strategy in two groups of clients, with 5 to 6 members in each group. These youngsters are considered as risky because they had biased drug knowledge and attitudes, and ready accessibility to drugs. Nearly all of them had experimented drug use. These youngsters had a good relationship with us but they were not interested to discuss their drug use with us. A small group approach was adopted becausen they are used to play together in a group.

Since telling our clients the real purpose of our intervention may harden their resistance in participation, we introduced it under other pretext. We told each group of our clients that we had arranged some interesting persons to visit our center, but did not have enough volunteers to interview them. We invited them to be the volunteer interviewers for one group of visitors. Our clients agreed to help. Some days later, we told them that they were arranged to interview two young visitors who had been regular Mandrax and cannabis users but had quitted some years ago. If they like, they could ask them to tell their stories. We also briefly prepared them how to conduct interviews.

The two visitors are our previous clients living in another district. They are a few years older than our present clients. Both have stopped using psychotropic substances for three years and are currently doing business on their own. They were informed of the real purpose of the interviews and were ready to share their background, experience and feelings with our clients.

Each interview lasted for over one hour. Our visitors were quite verbal and spontaneous, and gave clear messages on the cause and course of drug use and why they eventually gave up substance use. They pointed out not only physical and psychological dependencies, but also undesirable social consequences (e.g. involvement in reckless driving, crime and gang fights, further resulting in personal injuries, court sentences, detention, imprisonment or even death) that they or their friends had experienced during the period when they used drugs. The visitors also emphasized that the desire to change must come from within themselves.

Since the visitors were telling their own, or their friends', real stories, their messages had a high credibility. From observations of our clients' nonverbal behaviour (e.g. frequent fidgets and intervals of silence) during the interviews, we believed that these messages had induced a certain amount of cognitive dissonance in them. We also gathered some feedback from individual clients a few days later. We learned that some of our clients had become more ambivalent towards substance-taking.

The strategy of exposing clients to peer models has created important personal impact on them. Further follow-up work is required to strengthen their attitude changes, and to facilitate actual behaviour change.

We find that our visitors can also benefit from this exercise. By announcing their commitments publicly, they have further built up their resistance to temptations of substance use from their peers.

SUMMARY

Recently, there has been an increase in psychotropic substance usage among adolescents. Outreaching social work plays a significant role in making early identification and intervention to this group of clients.

Outreaching social workers consider that one major obstacle in their work is that clients are not motivated to change. In this paper, we explored a few factors associated with adolescent substance use and suggested how cognitive dissonance strategies may be applied to help adolescent substance users to change their substance-taking attitudes and behaviour.

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TA AS A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR COUNSELLING

Jessica LEONG

Parental Messages & Their Effects On Early Decisions

In my work as a counsellor in an institution of higher learning, I find that certain themes emerge repeatedly as the basis for young people's negative early decisions about self, others and the environment. These decisions appear to vary with different persons and the power of these messages are dependent on the following factors:

(A) Timing

(B) Frequency

(C) Source of the Message

(D) Family & Country Scripts

If a person's life course (Mr A) has developed "normally" and there has been no unreasonable pressure or trauma, his important decisions about his life goals, career-choice and life partner will probably be made relatively late in his life. In this case Mr. A will be making those decisions with sufficient mature knowledge about his choices and options.

However, in a family or a situation where a young person (Miss B) has gone through very harsh parenting or many negative experiences, she may make lethal decisions, like not wanting to exist at a very tender age.

Foot Note

The Singapore Polytechnic, which is the first technologist training institution to be established in the country, offers a wide range of courses in the engineering business and maritime fields. It has a student population of 14,000 and its main thrust is to produce middle-level management personnel to serve Singapore's industries. Full-time enrolment is open to both 'O' and 'A' Level school leavers and most of the applicants' age range is between 16 to 20 years.

(A) Timing

Messages that are given to a younger child as compared to those given to an older one appear to have different impact on the person.

For example :

Mother says : "Go away , you are a bad boy ! "

The message said to a younger child has the tendency to be experienced as a 'Don't exist message', whereas the older child might understand it as a 'Don't belong' or 'Don't be you' message and then each makes a different decision.

If a message is given concurrently with a major crisis, it will tend to have added power. Those delivered at a time when parents are getting a divorce, or at the arrival of a new sibling or when one of the parents has died seem to be more potent.

(B) Frequency

The power of a message might also be increased by the frequency with which it is given. If one parent gives the message over and over again within a short span of time, the child is more likely to accept it. However, the power of the message is again very severe if both mother and father give the same message.

(C) Source of Message

The source of a message is still another very important variable. One parent is often felt to be more powerful, in which case his or her message will be more fully accepted. Whoever the "stronger" parent may be in a young person's life would vary with families and with individual children within a family.

(D) Family & Country Scripts

Family and Country Scripts may also be very potent. Some of Singapore's Country Scripts are "Strive Towards Excellence", "Work Hard", "Work Smart", "Productivity & Teamwork". Family scripts of the different ethnic groups, would include "Be Filial", "Listen to Elders" and "Support Your Parents In Their Old Age". Such strong country and parental messages reflect the philosophy of many Singaporeans.

Family messages are often passed on by the parents and others at home, and of the child experiences them wherever he goes, for examples, in school or in the community also, the messages' potency is reinforced considerably.

Therapeutic Viewpoint

A client, who is making new decisions or redecisions regarding family and cultural scripting, needs a therapist's understanding and comprehension of his family traditions, beliefs and values. If the therapist gives permission, or accepts permissions, which contravene the prevailing culture, tradition, religious teaching, customs or education, considerable guilt may follow for the client.

It is very important to "protect" against disastrous consequences when the client goes home or back into society. For example, I might tell a student to "stop working so hard" when he is seen to be getting no joy from life because of the powerful drive "Work Hard or You Are Not OK". I might explain to my client that he could take his own time and pace to "work hard" and that there is no obligation or expectation to obey the directive. The client is invited to give himself permission to make his own decision on the issue of working hard. The problem comes if his family believes that "working hard is the answer to success" and they might then perceive me as a negative influence on their child. Hence, in therapy, it is the Transactional Analyst's responsibility to know the kind of home environment and culture that his client comes from and will be going back into.

It is important that the TA therapist realizes Singaporeans are unique and their experiences different. In using TA interventions and strategies in treatment, one must consider the conflict of or gap between Eastern and Western values, beliefs, traditions and family messages.

CONTRACTING FOR CHANGES

The therapeutic contract sets the focus for treatment. The client decides specifically, in terms of beliefs, emotions and behavior, what she plans to change about herself in order to reach a point when she is happy. She works with the TA therapist to determine the contract and makes the contract with herself. The therapy that follows after the contract will make the connection between the client's present impasse and the scene from childhood in which the client is still "stuck".

The work is not easy. It takes careful listening and creativity on the part of the therapist for the client "to go back in time" to the early childhood scene when he made the survival decision to please his mother or father by working hard, and only feeling OK about himself when he is doing that. The client who wants to feel good without having to work hard all the time, but feels stuck and unable to change, is said to be at an impasse. The real success in therapy comes when the client is able to work through his impasse and make a 'redecision' to change. The change must occur at an emotional level, but is facilitated by the cognitive process (Goulding and Goulding, 1979).

In sharing my work as a TA therapist, I would like to illustrate the way in which I embark on a contract for change with my client, using a TA conceptual framework. Most clients that I see in my counselling work express the wish to change, and these treatment contracts are usually presented in a manner which sound very positive. However, clients experience great difficulties in achieving their goals. The changes that these clients seek are usually related to their academic performances and studies. The Singapore Polytechnic is an educational institution and like all other bodies in Singapore, is an institution which is test-conscious, so that the lives of many students are greatly, if not totally, influenced by their academic performances. It is, therefore, not altogether surprising that students begin counselling situations with contracts "to be better". Some example of their treatment contracts include -

"I want to be more hardworking."

"I want to make more progress with my studies."

"I want to concentrate more."

"I want to play less."

"I want to be a better/perfect student."

"I want to seek more happiness."

"I want to learn how to be good."

"I want to understand myself better."

"I want to know why I am a failure."

The most common difficulty I had before using the TA theory of contract, was to accept these diluted contracts. By dilution, I am referring to contracts which mean that clients see themselves as not OK unless they are "better". Therefore, they could enter hours of therapeutic sessions without changing at the end point of therapy.

In using the TA theory of contracting, I invite my clients to ask themselves these questions :

(1) What do I want to do to enhance my life ?

(2) What do I have to do to get what I want ?

(3) Am I willing to do it ?

(4) What am I willing to give up ?

(5) How do I stop myself from getting what I want ?

(6) What can I change ?

(7) How will you and I know that you have changed ?

(8) How do you see me as fitting into your contract ?

I feel that these questions are vital and crucial. Contracts made by clients must be based on a realistic appraisal of what they, and their therapist, can contribute to the process of change. The situation below will illustrate the importance of contract setting:

> Ah Seng, a student, has made a contract: "I want to get better grades for my exams"
>
> He needs to negotiate with himself to organize his private study time-table for making this change. (The TA principle here is, everyone has the capacity to think and to change, and is ultimately responsible for his own life.)
>
> It would, therefore, mean that Ah Seng has to decide what he is willing to do, and not to do. He might have to decide to give up watching TV at night and allocate 3 hours more to his course work. He would be able to measure his success if he could see for himself that he could complete his course assignment and produce good grades of 70% and above. Therefore, it is up to Ah Seng and not the therapist to decide what he wants for his life.

In a therapeutic setting, my responsibilities are to point out what seems dysfunctional, highlight to the client that he can sabotage his own contract, and enumerate what his options are should he sabotage himself.

TA therapy has been effective because my clients and I share responsibility for the changes they want to make. This partnership makes my therapy meaningful, fulfilling and alive. Again, the use of the TA contract in therapy has been successful because I strongly believe that my client and I need to be clear about the nature and content of change. We also need to be aiming for results which are acceptable to both of us. I feel that for any therapy to be effective, the client must be given the option to decide what is important for him.

JL/TA2/BERN

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GUIDANCE WORK IN HONG KONG SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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INTRODUCTION

1. I have chosen guidance work in secondary schools to be the topic for today's discussion because as educators we are all concerned with students' developmental, educational and personal problems. The enhancement of students' personal development is not only an important educational objective, it is also the main thrust of recent measures to improve the quality of education in Hong Kong. In the 1982 seminar "Towards a Happier Life in School", many principals indicated the need to enrich the curriculum and promote guidance work in school. These suggestions have led to positive changes in our guidance system making teachers more aware of their role in guidance work. In this paper, I will attempt to highlight some of the efforts made by various professional groups in promoting a better guidance service in our secondary schools.

THE LOCAL SCHOOLS SYSTEM

2. Before we look into the provision of guidance service, the following background information may be useful to those who are less familiar with our local school system. In 1988, there were 689 primary schools (with a population of about 510,000 in the age group 5 to 11) and 434 secondary schools (with a population of about 610,000 in the age group 12 to 18) in Hong Kong. These schools may be classified into three types according to their source of finacial support (i.e. government schools, aided schools and private schools). The majority of schools in Hong Kong are aided schools. Primary education was made free in all government and aided schools in September 1971. The provision of 9 years of free and compulsory education was introduced in September 1978. Children start primary school at the age of 6 and remain in school until the age of 15 or until they complete junior secondary school.

3. The number of students per secondary school is about 1,000 in most schools andthe class size is 40. Teachers normally have quite a heavy teaching load. Since competition to higher education, being seen as a step to success, is keen, a lot of emphasis is put on academic achievement by the parents, the students themselves and society as a whole.

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PROVISION OF GUIDANCE SERVICE

4. School heads and teachers have long felt and expressed the need for counselling in school. The need has become urgent since the implementation of compulsory education in 1978 as all children, including those unmotivated and backward, are now admitted into schools. Student guidance has always been the work of the class-teacher who uses his free time to help his students in making educational and vocational plans and in overcoming their personal problems. Many schools have now accepted the idea of a team approach to guidance. The size of the team may vary but the core of the team usually consists of teachers in charge of careers and general guidance, as well as discipline.

5. Systematic counselling service provided by school social workers has its beginning in the early 1970s. In 1979, the "Social Welfare into the Nineteen-Eighties" policy paper mandated that school work service should be extended to all secondary schools at the ratio of one worker to 4,000 students. The ratio was later improved to 1:3,000 in September 1987. Each worker is required to serve an average of 3 schools at one time. The work of school workers include case work and group programmes. For case work, 5 main problem areas are identified in a latest survey by the Hong Kong Council of Social Services. They are: behavioural/emotional difficulties, parent/child relationship, developmental adjustment difficulties, peer relationship and unsatisfactory classroom/school conduct. For group programmes, a large majority of the programmes are socialization/developmental in nature, followed by programmes on study/career guidance, orientation and counselling/treatment. In carrying out their work, the school social worker often work closely with teachers, other social workers and professionals.

6. The importance of guidance work in secondary schools has long been recognized by the Education Department. Since the 1950s career guidance services have been provided through the Careers Education Section of the Education Department, the Labour Department and the Hong Kong Association of Careers Masters and Guidance Masters. They work closely together to provide assistance and information during the three stages of career choice - careers awareness, careers exploration and careers preparation.

7. Following the introduction of nine years free and compulsory education in 1978, the need for a more comprehensive guidance service in secondary schools became imperative as the educational and behavioural problems of many children in the mainstream have become more visible. Between 1982 and 1986, the Education Department provided each standard-sized government

and aided secondary school with five additional teachers to improve the various supportive services to students. One of these teaching posts was provided specifically to strengthen counselling and guidance, including careers guidance.

8. In order to provide more resource materials on general guidance that will complement or broaden the curriculum, guidelines on moral education, on civic education and on sex education have been issued to all secondary schools by the Education Department since 1981. Recently, the Education Department has also started a school-based curriculum project scheme aiming at making the curriculum more flexible to suit the needs of students in individual schools.

9. In 1986, a range of additional support services have been introduced to ensure that guidance work can be smoothly implemented in all secondary schools. "Guidance Work in Secondary Schools - A Suggested Guide" was produced and issued to all secondary schools. The Guide gives suggestions to schools on the organization and practical aspects of guidance work, and provides information on the intervention programmes and resources available in the community. The Guidance Teacher Resource Centre was set up in 1988 in accordance with one of the recommendations of the review of the Guide.

10. At about the same time, a two-year pilot project of the Schools Support Scheme was launched to provide secondary schools with the professional support of educational psychologists (EPs) so as to assist teachers in the handling of students' learning and behaviour problems. Twelve secondary schools were selected for the pilot project from a stratified sample to give a fair representation of the different types of schools in Hong Kong. A team of four EPs in the first year and five EPs in the second year was deployed to visit schools weekly and to work alongside teachers in handling students' problems. The services provided by EPs included:-

a) discussion with the principal or his deputy;

b) consultation service for guidance teachers;

c) consultation service for other school teachers;

d) direct service to individual students;

e) initiating case conferences;

f) advice on/running of preventive programmes;

g) running staff development programmes.

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11. Evaluation of the pilot project of the Schools Support Scheme was completed in 1988. It was found that the Scheme was well-accepted by the participating schools and the school personnel generally agreed that all teachers should share the responsibility of providing guidance service in school. This gives clear indication of readiness of the schools and teachers to have more involvement in guidance work provided that sufficient professional support is given to them. To achieve this objective, the following recommendations are made by the Schools Support Scheme Working Group:-

a) Training in counselling and guidance for teachers should be strengthened. For example, counselling and guidance should be given greater emphasis in the curricula of all teacher training programmes.

b) The existing workload and resources for guidance teachers in secondary schools should be examined.

c) All personnel engaged in guidance work should endeavour to achieve closer inter-disciplinary collaboration.

d) In view of the different needs of schools, educational psychologists should in consultation with school principals exercise discretion in providing visiting time and types of service to individual schools.

In order to co-ordinate all the resources and efforts made, the Education Department is now considering a Comprehensive Support System to the guidance service in secondary schools.

12. From the experience we gained from our involvement in promoting guidance work in secondary schools, especially through the pilot project of the Schools Support Scheme, we realize that many schools are now becoming more aware of the concept of the whole-school approach to guidance. In short, the whole-school∠highlights the preventive aspect of guidance ∠ approach taking into consideration the complex nature of a student's personal social development and the variety of measures required to promote his healthy growth by all concerned parties at the classroom, school, community and national levels. The crucial nature of the whole-school approach is the emphasis of full staff involvement in guidance work, based on the belief that guidance objectives are to be realized through the nature of the personal relationships in the classroom and through the daily example of all the adults with whom the students are in contact.

13. In adopting the whole-school approach, focus on the positive is emphasized. The Elton Report, "Discipline in Schools - Report of the Committee of Enquiry", among other recommendations makes the following suggestions to help the school create a more positive atmosphere:-

a) Headteachers and their senior management teams should take the lead in developing school plans for promoting good behaviour.

b) The headteacher's management style is seen as a crucial factor in encouraging a sense of collective responsibility among staff, and a sense of commitment to the school among students and their parents. Management training for the headteachers should therefore focus on effective team building.

c) The school curriculum should offer stimulating and suitably differentiated programmes of study for the full ability range of the students.

d) Personal and social education as a means of promoting good behaviour should be strengthened both inside and outside the school curriculum.

e) At the classroom level, all teachers should be helped to become more effective classroom managers.

14. It is encouraging to see that many of these new ideas are now making their footing in our education system, especially with the implementation of the pilot project of the Schools Support Scheme, our educational psychologists have been able to work closely with the participating schools in the right directions. In fact all our recommendations on the Scheme are geared towards a whole-school approach to guidance service. Besides the Schools Support Scheme, other new ideas such as the Power of Positive Students (POPS) Scheme have also been tried out in a local secondary school to help students of low motivation and self-esteem. This reflects the professional enthusiasm of our educationalists in their persistent search for ways to make school life a more fruitful experience for our students.

PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

15. Finally, I think most of you will agree with me that any approach in the education process without parental involvement is considered incomplete. Participation of parents in their children's education is definitely not a new idea in modern educational thinking. The western democratic system is based on the principle that citizens should be involved in all

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aspects of government including education. Thus parental involvement is quite well developed in many western societies. For example, parental involvement programmes have become popular in the United States since the 1960s. In Hong Kong, it is also becoming widely accepted that parents have a vital role to play in the education of their children and that its success depends greatly on the joint efforts of the home and the school. In fact, many local schools have already involved parents in a variety of activities. In September 1988, the Education Department issued a "Note on School-Parent Liaison" to all schools giving concrete suggestions on ways to examine communication channels and to promote mutual understanding and support between school staff and parents. Seminars on parental involvement have been organized for school heads and a pamphlet on effective parenting has also been issued to all parents of school-aged children by the Education Department. These efforts are made to highlight once again the importance of involving all concerned parties in the education process of which student guidance is an integral part. Indeed there will be a big gap in the guidance service without the full involvement and support of the parents.

CONCLUSION

16. In this paper I have tried to outline in brief the efforts made to improve guidance work in the local secondary schools. The roles of the school, the school social worker and the Education Department were examined. The experience we have gained locally also leads us to a better understanding of our needs and the future direction we should be heading for, i.e. adoption of the whole-school approach, including provision of more professional training and support for the teachers, improving the curriculum, involvement of parents, etc. The search, of course, is still going on. But with professional enthusiasm and a positive open attitude, we hope we will be able to head towards the right direction, with our modest achievements, into the 1990s and finally be able to meet the challenges of the 21st century.

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REFORM IN CHINA: A COMPARISON OF CAREER NEEDS OF CHINESE AND CANADIAN MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS

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The People's Republic of China (PRC) is in the process of reforming its educational system, and career counselling is one of the innovative strategies that are being utilized. For the past four years researchers from the University of Victoria (Canada) and East China Normal University (China) have been working on the development of career counselling materials for middle schools. This paper focuses on the results of career needs among Chinese and Canadian middle school children, their parents, and teachers. This project is funded by the International Development Research Council (IDRC), Government of Canada.

"All genuine knowledge stems from direct experience" is attributed to Mao Zeodong who wanted to emphasize the dominance of experience over intellect. Mao wanted to reshape and infuse the people of China with a revolutionary spirit that would enable it to develop into a modern, industrialized country. Since October 1, 1949 when the PRC was proclaimed by Mao, Westerners have looked at China with fear, surprise, and wonder. While Mao created a stronger China, his social experimentation was a dismal failure that cost countless lives and broken "dreams." The most populous country on earth has continued the "march" towards modernization, but, instead of following the revolutionary path of Mao's "east is red," the more pragmatic path of Deng Xiaoping's "four modernizations" has become the guide.

Deng's reforms have reinterpreted some Marxist principles, yet the dominance of the Communist party still reflects China's hierarchical and totalitarian political orientation. What has changed has been a blending of Marxist principles and Chinese pragmatism, to produce a unique political, social, and economic environment. The result is a mixing of state ownership, central planning, the "dictatorship of the proletariat," private enterprise, competitive markets, and some restructuring of economic and social institutions. The hard-working peasants have been freed from the communes and can now grow crops in accordance with the needs of the market-place. Factory managers now have to be accountable not only for the quality of their production, but the demands of consumers. China has embarked upon a development program, which Deng and others hope will place China in a position of economic and political strength. Recent events in China demonstrate that rising economic expectations also lead to rising political expectations. There is no question that the political situation will affect the economic progress China has made. Certainly, the "good will" generated from the opening of China has been seriously damaged in recent months.

Nonetheless changes have been made that cannot be reversed. Nowhere else has the change been more evident than in the educational system, which is one of the areas that Deng has designated as a catalyst for change. However, reform may not come easily or without criticism. When the term "career counselling" was first mentioned in the literature, it was identified with the so-called "Western liberalization movement." This attitude has not been completely reversed, yet career counselling has gained some acceptance and promoters in all sectors of the education establishment.

Educational Reform in the PRC

The educational reform that has taken place can be better understood by reviewing the periods of educational development since the founding of the PRC. Jin, Si, and France (1988) have divided the development of educational reform into four periods: expansion from 1949 to 1965; turmoil from 1966 to 1976; restoration from 1977 to 1980; and reform from 1981 to the present.

During the expansion period the PRC embarked on a program of mass education. New schools were built and a program of adult literacy was started. Since education had been neglected by the previous governments and the various wars deprived many of the chance of further study, China focused on the basics (e.g., elementary schools and adult literacy programs). In the late 1950's agricultural schools became the first priority. These schools were later expanded into vocational schools focusing on basic manufacturing. This coincided with "the great leap forward," which Mao hoped would change China from a Third World agricultural society into an industrial power. In fact, this became a harbinger of what was to come during the decade of turmoil. During this period the needs of the society came first, which translated into no career choice. "The peoples' need is my only aspiration" and "Placing my whole life at the disposal of the Party is my goal" became slogans of this period. Yet among many there was much excitement and enthusiasm, when people set aside their personal needs of fulfillment. Since career choice did not exist, there was little need for career counselling.

The period of turmoil, culminating in the "cultural revolution," destroyed much of the earlier advances. A whole generation was lost and the PRC went into decline. The priority during this time was politics and revolution. Most colleges and universities closed, while examinations were abolished. The new type of schools emphasized "learning from the people," which meant students and teachers were sent to the countryside to do manual labour as a part of the school curriculum. It was believed that being "red" was more important than having expertise and would provide everyone with the opportunity to contribute to the greater good.

The death of Mao and the trial of the "gang of four" marked the end of the "cultural revolution" and the period of restoration. Deng took power and those programs established during the cultural revolution were abolished. Compulsory manual labour ceased, school entrance exams were restored, and political orientation began to count less than ability. Despite reforms, students were offered no career or educational choice. The lack of facilities and teachers allowed only 5% of secondary school graduates to attend post-secondary training. Those who were not accepted had little vocational training and no idea of what careers might be available. While parents complained, students waited patiently for the bureaucrats in Beijing to assign them jobs. Ideological concerns, such as centralized planning, continue to hamper productivity.

Deng's "four modernization" program heralds the period of reform by stressing the need for education to play a part in social and economic development. In the economic area autonomous powers were given to enterprises, and more partnerships were begun with foreign companies. The "iron rice bowl," guaranteed employment, was broken and it was recognized that a better educated and more flexible worker was needed. Enterprises were reluctant to accept unskilled and poorly motivated workers from the secondary schools. The educational structure was reorganized and broadened to better serve the changing economic system. As a result, students were given more choices that reflect their abilities, interests, and wishes. However, students do not have the degree of choice that they desire.

A dramatic example of the new interpretation of Marxism can be seen in the statement of Zhao Dongwan, Minister of Labour, who called for 5,200,000 contract workers by the end of 1986. This departure allowed workers to sell their services and enterprises to buy services in accordance with market conditions and productivity of workers. The Communist Party's Central Committee, the main decision-making body, suggested that by 1990 there should be a doubling of the number of students currently attending vocational and technical schools (People's Daily, 1987). However, additional pressures for more democracy have allowed conservatives to block more economic and educational reform.

Until the incident in Tiananmen Square reformers were experimenting with career counselling and trying to adapt it to Chinese cultural, political, and social conditions. At present no one is quite sure how the experimentations will be affected. The joint University of Victoria and East China Normal University career education and counselling project has had as its goals: to conduct a career needs assessment; to experiment with various methods of career education and counselling; and to develop educational materials that could help schools implement career counselling.

There are some practical aspects that make implementation of school career counselling difficult. To make it operational, three questions must be answered:

1. Can personnel and resources be organized efficiently?

2. Will the content of the career materials be consistent with China's social, political, and economic system?

3. How will the materials be presented to the students (e.g., through the curriculum or by having separate career counselling personnel)?

Procedures for Developing a Needs Assessment

Comparing the differences and similarities between Chinese and Canadian middle school students provides intriguing information on how China can embark on developing counselling services. The construction of the needs assessment instrument followed similar procedures, which resulted in slightly different questionnaires for use in China and Canada. The procedures consisted of:

1. Forming a Planning Committee. This committee was composed of those interested in finding out how best to improve the transition of students from school to the world of work. A group of teachers, parents, and other concerned professionals were brought together for advice. The Luwang School District in Shanghai, China and the Victoria School District 61, in Victoria,

Canada were used for the study. The goals of the research were explained, and considerable time, particularly in China, was given to explaining career counselling and research concepts. For example, in China the ideas were novel and provided a rationale for procedures such as a detailed explanation of randomization. Shanghai teachers were particularly concerned about discovering "problems" and focusing on the negatives.

2. Defining Goals. From the meetings with the committees broad goals were formulated that the needs survey addressed.

3. Developing an Instrument. Based on what occurred in steps one and two a questionnaire was developed. In doing this, both the China and Canada groups kept in mind the developmental tasks of the target population and the cultural variables in each society. The target groups were parents, teachers, and middle school students. The Canadian and Chinese questionnaires took into consideration the input from each of the planning committees, and some different needs were identified and included in each of the questionnaires.

4. Pilot Study. This step was taken to work out all the problems in a questionnaire before the data collecting was undertaken. Five to ten people in each of the target groups were administered the questionnaires. Participants in each group were asked if the questionnaires addressed the goals defined in step two. The questionnaires were revised to reflect the changes from the pilot study.

5. Administering the Questionnaire. The questionnaires were then administered to randomly selected subjects from each of the target groups from randomly selected schools.

Selected Results of the Needs Assessment

The result of the needs assessment highlights some similarities and differences in the needs of middle school students in China and Canada. As a process of doing this assessment, a number of cultural variables have been identified that have implications for implementing career education in China (e.g., career counselling in Canada is based on independent student choice, while it appears that in China independent choice is largely influenced by hierarchical considerations). Initially, the groups in China and Canada had an equal number of subjects, but the return rate in China was 99% compared to 75% in Canada (Table 1). Four Chinese schools and four Canadian schools, junior secondary, were randomly selected and surveyed. In each of the schools, classes were randomly chosen from grades 7-9. The main topics of the needs assessment were:

Table 1: Subjects Participating in the Study

	Students	Teachers	Parents
China	224	42	120
Canada	170	29	30
Total	394	71	150

1. students' value criteria and choices of various occupations;

2. the relationship between their career goals and school activities;

and

3. their needs in regard to career choice.

Table 2 indicates the difference between students and parents and how they ranked occupational value criteria. The ranking goes from most important (1) to least important (6); students gave value criteria of occupations.

Table 2: Value Criteria

RANKING (high)	1	2	3	4	5	6	(low)
Chinese Students	4	2	6	1	3	5	
Canadian Students	4	5	3	1	6	2	
Chinese Parents	5	2	4	1	3	6	
Canadian Parents	3	6	4	2	1	5	
Chinese Teachers	2	3	4	5	6	1	
Canadian Teachers	2	4	6	3	5	1	

Key: Prestige=1; 2=Contribute to a better Society; 3=Work Conditions; 4= Fulfillment; 5=Outlook; 6=Salary

Chinese and Canadian students both view careers as an opportunity for personal fulfillment, while parents are more concerned with practical issues (i.e., outlook and work conditions). Both teacher groups tended to be more idealistic than either the students or parents by emphasizing contributions to society. Chinese teachers always voiced their ideas about careers around the idea of "socialist construction" (i.e., serving the masses), but this does not explain the emphasis that Canadian teachers give item 2. Remarkably, all the groups rank personal fulfillment high in value. This suggests that all the groups see work as a means for providing personal development and fulfillment.

Ten categories, representing a broad spectrum of occupations represented in the 1982 Chinese census, were used to examine the relationship between value criteria and occupations (see Table 3). Students were asked to rank them from most desirable (1) to least desirable (10). Both groups tended to pick occupations that require higher education reflecting similar views of the value of education. Chinese students regarded science occupations as the most desirable, while industrial work and self-employment were regarded as the least desirable. A major difference was the higher ranking by Canadian students compared to Chinese students of trade and industrial occupations and the lower ranking of teaching. Teaching may have more prestige in China than Canada. Surprisingly, teaching, military, and government careers were regarded as equally desirable by Chinese students. This is significant in that military occupations were always regarded before the reform period with greater respect, while intellectual type occupations were less highly

Table 3: Students' Preferred Occupations

Occupations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Chinese Students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Canadian Students	2	1	4	8	7	5	3	6	9	10

Key: 1=Science; 2=Medicine; 3=Teaching; 4=Government; 5=Athletics/Entertainment; 6=Military/Police; 7=Business; 8=Trades/Industry; 9=Agriculture/Forestry; 10=Self-employed.

regarded. The students' career choice reflected their parents' aspirations for them. For example, for Chinese parents, 62.6% wanted their children to become scientists, 13.6% chose medical careers, while only 2.5% and 0.1% chose industrial and agricultural careers. Chinese students and their parents desire to do intellectually stimulating work (e.g., scientist) while avoiding intellectually unstimulating work (e.g., farmer and factory worker). This discrepancy does not reflect China's need to have more industrial workers. Manual and semiskilled workers are in great demand, while many "white collar" workers are not. This tendency is understandable because, after the "Cultural Revolution," public opinion positively emphasized knowledge and the role of intellectuals in society. However, this problem is not unique to China; every country has occupations that are uninteresting. This suggests that counsellors will have to include leisure or other ways of achieving meaning as an aspect of career counselling.

To get a better understanding of who influences the students' career choices, students were asked who influences their decisions. Table 4 demonstrates that for both groups parents have the most influence. For Canadians, school counsellors have the next highest influence, while the teacher comes next. Interestingly, friends have far greater influence on Canadian school children than do their counterparts in China. This may indicate that there is stronger peer influence in Canada than in China or that Canadian school children have more information to share than Chinese students. In addition, Canadian students have a greater sense of free choice about their future compared to Chinese students.

Table 4: Factors Influencing Career Decisions

Influence	1	2	3	4	5	6
Chinese Students	60%	19%	8%	7%	6%	-
Canadian Students	51%	14%	13%	2%	2%	18%

Key: 1=Parents; 2=Teachers; 3=Friends; 4=Siblings; 5=Don't know; 6=Counsellors.

To ascertain what would influence students in either choosing a school subject or what stimulates their interests, students were asked to rank interest factors. Table 5 shows that both groups like a subject because they are interested in it (factor 2). In short, it appeared that most students' educational focus was not related to their career interest. For example, only 11% of Chinese students and 14% of Canadian students gave the main reason for studying as training for future work. Surprisingly, only 11% of Chinese students and 22% of Canadian students considered their occupational aspirations when they chose school subjects. The majority of students would

Table 5: Interest in School Subjects

Factors	1	2	3	4	5
Chinese Students	11%	67%	6%	11%	5%
Canadian Students	14%	51%	12%	22%	1%

Key: 1=Excellent Teacher; 2=Interest; 3=Success in the Subject; 4=Help in Future Career; 5=Help in High School like to take subjects that interest them, which suggests that assisting students in clarifying their interests might improve motivation.

Chinese and Canadian students feel that more career information and more time spent on clarifying abilities, aptitudes, interests, and values would help them make career decisions (Table 6). Chinese students feel less certain about emphasizing self-knowledge compared to Canadian students. Self-exploration has more acceptance in Canada than it does in China. This may mean that Chinese students may prefer the didactic approach to career exploration, while Canadian students may prefer the more experimental approach. This difference underscores the open (Canadian) versus the closed (Chinese) nature of sharing personal information. While Canadian students indicated that career information and self-knowledge are very important, they also indicated that these needs are somewhat met (62% for career information and 57% for self-knowledge).

Table 6: Help in Making Career Decisions

	Career Information	Self-Knowledge
Chinese Students	51% Very Important	36% Very Important
Canadian Students	46% Very Important	56% Very Important

Implications for Implementing of Career Counselling Services

An examination of the information provided from this study indicates remarkable similarities in needs expression among Chinese and Canadian students. There is no question that all students would like to have more emphasis on careers in the school curriculum. Significantly, students in Canada indicate that many of their career needs are being met by existing programs. While there are some similarities among the groups, there are differences that need to be addressed if career counselling is to meet the needs of Chinese students. Thus, one of the most important aspects of the needs assessment is the reinforcement of the unique social, cultural, and political ideology of China. What remains to be seen is whether the "hard-line" interpretation of Marxism will prevail, which may mean not acting on reforms that might encourage individual expression.

In Canada, career counselling emphasizes that self-knowledge, adequate occupational information, and decision-making skills can help lead to appropriate career decisions. In China, the Ministry of Education is still making primary educational and career decisions for students. Essentially, the mechanism for filling occupational quotas is for state and the few private businesses and organizations to indicate their occupational requirements to the Ministry of Education. Based on this information bureaucrats assign careers, that are basically fixed, to school graduates in cooperation with local or work group (danwai) officials. In the past, assignments were made not on the ability or interest of the individual, but on need and expediency. The government is proposing to correct this, by making future career assignments after a more thorough exploration of students' abilities, aptitudes, and interests. With more and more organizations on a local level seeking out skilled workers or educated trainees, school graduates have more opportunity to make individual career decisions. What may happen in the coming years is a more mixed process of career decision making where individuals have some choice about their occupations.

For the foreseeable future career counselling in China will have to follow the "correct" political line. Career counselling can fit into the continuation of the "four modernization" program in several ways:

1. It can reinforce the "socialist construction" value in the PRC by emphasizing the value of labour.

2. It can create a more articulate school graduate with a clearer understanding of abilities, interests, and occupations.

3. It can be incorporated into the curriculum either through the development of career education materials for all academic subjects or by integrating such materials with "moral" (ideological) education or family life classes.

4. It can be offered in the form of special seminars to teachers who can carry out career counselling activities.

5. It can be used with parent groups who can work with their children in making career decisions. Given the group orientation of Chinese society, including the parents in the process is only prudent.

Some of the challenges for China, like many other Third World countries, are to find the resources to develop a comprehensive program. The primary need is to develop materials that can provide information and guidelines on implementing a career development program. Basic materials, like the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, that reflect Chinese society and culture need to be developed. In addition, evolving a system of training teachers in efficient use of these materials is critical.

One of the difficulties that will be encountered in implementing comprehensive career counselling programs is that there are still too few university places open for the needs of the country. This has resulted in a great deal of competition to get admitted, which in turn has now put pressure on students in elementary school. Parents exert great pressure on their children to do well in order to enter the best middle schools. Total emphasis is put on the results of examinations rather than on how much the students are learning. Thus, parents, teachers, and administrators need to be shown how career counselling programs can create greater career opportunities. Training counsellors at this stage may be expensive and time consuming. Rather than separating the counselling function, it should be incorporated into the curriculum. In addition, principals and other administrators need to be brought into the process in order to make the reforms work. This can be accomplished by workshops and seminars that stress the positive benefits of career counselling.

The needs assessment and various experiments with career counselling procedures suggest that the following be recommended:

1. Develop educational materials that enhance students' knowledge about themselves (values, interest, and abilities) and the "world of work."

2. Develop occupatonal information that describes all aspects of jobs, including working conditions, training requirements, demands, and outlook.

3. Help students to realize that there are many methods of achieving a meaningful career, besides going on to university training.

4. Develop a community consultation centre, which has input from a variety of places (e.g., industry, business, government, universities, and families).

5. Insure that principals are involved in implementation with significant roles (e.g., consultant or coordinator).

6. Develop career counselling materials and training opportunities in conjunction with local schools.

7. Develop a simple, yet effective method of evaluation of career counselling programs.

For China to develop career counselling programs from scratch, it is important that the lessons learned from Canada's experience be studied. In the words of Mao, China needs to be "open to learning from the experience" of Western countries. The tragedy of the present interpretation of Marxism is that it has put 100 people to work, but has given them only one shovel. One person does all the work and everyone else watches. The challenge is to find 99 more shovels and give everybody a chance to work.

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"CONFLICT OF CULTURE AMONG ASIAN WOMEN WHO HAVE MIGRATED TO THE UNITED STATES IN URBAN ENVIRONMENT"

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Abstract

This paper focuses on "Cultural Conflict" which emerges when an individual brings his "Cultural Bag" from his own country, especially from the "East"; and when he is exposed to "Western Culture" which is so different in values and norms from their own country. This East-West dilemma creates conflict within oneself, and affects the mental health of the individual and the family. Those selected case studies from the Indian community indicates the importance of understanding another culture, especially for intercultural counselors, researchers and trainees in their profession. It also established the immediate need for further research in the field of East-West "Cultural Conflict".

Introduction

The intercultural counselors researchers, and trainees faces a modern dilemma in the United States. Sensitivity to cultural variable is recognized as valuable and even ethically essential for appropriate mental health services and yet the dangers of cultural encapsulation are more serious now than anytime in history. There is a need to resolve this dilemma in a way that will reflect and respect more than one perspective (Penderson and Marsella, 1983).

The above statement from Penderson and Marsella suggests the importance of cultural counseling, and it also recognizes the fact that how difficult the task is for counselors, educators, and trainees to understand the sensitivity of different cultural variables and to resolve it.

In 1970, many Indian families from India migrated to the United States to improve their economic condition. Multi-national corporations like Brown and Root, Kellogg, Union Carbide, construction and other chemical companies opened the door for Indian professionals, especially in the area of engineering. In addition, medical and paramedical professionals and scientists from India also found opportunities for intellectual advancement in the United States.

In may ways, however, Indians are totally unlike any other group of immigrants in U.S. history. These are not the tired, poor, and hungry masses that used to huddle at Ellis Island. Most heads of families are professionals with advanced degrees.

One out of five is an engineer, while physicians, scientists, accountants, and professors are also represented in large numbers. There is scarcely a major hospital, university, or research institute in the United States without an Indian contingent. The names of many Indian immigrants are internationally known: Nobel prize winning biochemist, Gabin Khoranas, University of Chicago astrophysicist subramanyam; Chandrasekhar and many more.

Indians have also made their mark in the American business world. An example shows that most of the Patels own motels in California and all over the United States. It is not surprising that Indians are one of the most affluent immigrant groups in the United States. This affluence, together with their knowledge of English, has enabled Indians to make many American friends and to take part in professional and community organizations, particularly of those with children, who become active in PTA and other school groups.

But Indians often do have problems adjusting to the way of life and customs in the United States due to cultural values inherited from their own Eastern country. Some of the problems are common to all immigrants, others unique to Indians; the problems arise due to so many variables in East-West culture which I called "Cultural Conflict."

Food can be a source of difficulty for those Orthodox Hindus, who are strict vegetarian, e.g. when a new prominent physician first comes to America, the dietitian at the hospital where he was interning complained about his requests for vegetarian meals.

Actually, it was not so much the request that bothered her, but the fact that other people including some Americans began asking for the same thing. After some time, some of the Indians tried to eat meat, but they didn't like it. However, at home they remain strictly vegetarian.

Some of the parents, who are vegetarian, have given up trying to raise their children in the traditional manner" because peer pressure is so strong in this country. For example, when all their friends eat McDonald's hamburgers and Kentucky Fried Chicken, what can you do?

Indian wives, particularly those brought to America following hostile arranged marriages, may experience acute difficulties in adjusting to American life. These women are often very unhappy. They find themselves alone for the first time without family or friends. Their husbands are busy with their jobs and having lived in America a long time may have unreasonable expectations. Another area is housekeeping. Indian women, who are used to having a group of servants, and whose previous experience may have been limited to handling the cooking of the day's menu in the morning find running a house can be a full-time job in America. Another related area is child-rearing. Indian women are not used to "babysitting," they feel that in the United States it is difficult to get a baby sitter, and also they have to plan ahead for a baby sitter at costs of thirty-dollars a day. In a typical Indian household, one can come and go as they please and the kids can play outside because there is always someone to look after them because of the extended family. Resenting the expense and difficulty of hiring baby sitters, Indians tend to take their children with them when they are invited out. Sometimes their American hosts express annoyance.

Indeed, bringing up children in a society, so different from that of the sub-continent is a problem, which frustrates many Indian parents, creates conflict and subsequently affects the mental health of the family. These problems related to "Cultural Conflict" need immediate attention to improve the mental health of the community at large.

Related Research

There are a number of research studies that have been done related to cross-cultural counseling, especially related to International students. However, not enough research has been found related to "Cultural-Conflict" among Asian-American groups, and especially women who have migrated after marriage. This needs to be investigated.

Cross-cultural counseling has been the focus of attention for many educators within the last 20 years. One major influence was the civil rights movement of 1960, and a recognition that the United States is a pluralistic rather than moralistic society. Educators began to realize that to be culturally different from a dominant society is not to be considered as being inferior (Copeland, 1983).

Ahio (1984) pointed out that cross-cultural counseling researchers need to approach their work from the premise that cultures are not comparatively better or worse, superior or inferior meaningful or meaningless, but rather that each culture is different and exciting and unique. Such a perspective is likely to bring about positive and useful data that would yield to a better understanding to the problems facing cross-cultural counseling.

Many of the studies examined the relationship of client-counselor demographic variables such as socioeconomic status, age, sex, and race but did not focus on cultural variables such as norms, roles and values. Only recently Marsella and Penderson have mentioned client-counselor differences in the context of cultural variation (Marsella and Penderson, 1981, Sue 1981).

Sue (1981) stated that counseling is primarily a western creation. All definitions of counseling include certain western-oriented philosophical assumptions. The western view of reality placed emphasis on the individual.

Similarly, Essen (1972) further explained that there are major differences between western and Asian child-rearing practices. Western children are generally allowed and grow to expect, more opportunities to think their own thoughts, see things their own way, and be themselves. The majority of Asian children experience a rigid, authoritarian upbringing in their early childhood where the father is introduced as the head of the family, and the one (father) to listen and to obey. Obedience and conformity are considered as standards of behavior for children. Therefore, it would be appropriate in counseling African students to use more group counseling process than one-to-one, individual counseling. It is also desirable that Indian clients would see their counselor as authoritarian figures. There would be no outcome on the counseling if the counselor operate on the do-it-yourself principle.

Fakuyama and Greenfield (1983) administered the college self -expression scale (CSES) to a group of Asian-American and Caucasian students to assess their assertive behaviors. The two-way analysis of variance findings revealed that there was a significant differences in CSES total scores between samples of Asian-American and caucasian students. No significant main effect for sex by ethnicity interaction was found. Differences between groups may be due to cultural norms, which are common to Asian-American groups. For example, the findings are consistent with the view that Asian-Americans may be less likely than caucasians to express feelings and make difficult requests. Asian-Americans may avoid assertion in public, such as pushing in line, due to awareness of the discomfort involved for both people. A second difference in values lies in the cultural norms in the expression of compliments, which may be difficult for persons whose ethnic backgrounds prescribe that compliments violate rules of modesty and unnecessarily highlights the individual. Finally, the expression of disagreement or annoyance may differ for each cultural group. Sue and Sue (1983) determined that the view that Asian-Americans and non-assertive is an inaccurate assumption. Asian-Americans possibly display differential assertiveness depending on situational variables.

According to Tan (1967), students from Asian culture with an authoritarian orientation differ from American subjects in the direction of authority orientation, directiveness, submission, and nurturance. In this study, the Asian students were found to be similar in their counseling expectations. As a group they tended to differ from the United States' group.

Chandras (1979) states that Asian-American students, who encounter personal problems may hesitate to utilize counseling and mental health facilities on campuses because they fear that the family, friends and relatives may consider them emotionally unsound. However, these students often prefer to go for vocational-oriented counseling on the campuses because less social stigma is attached to such action than mental health counseling. Many Asian-American families and students found it difficult to admit that they have problems--social, emotional, and personal--because they believe that the admission of social and emotional problems may bring shame on them and their families.

Alexander, Workheh, Klein and Miller (1976) observed that the foreign student client often expects and authoritarian, supportive, directive role from the therapists. Moreover, when the therapist and patient reject cultural differences between them, they reject each other as people. Yet our needs, the feelings and the vulnerabilities that we experience as people, are the same the world over. Cues are different, communication patterns are different, but the people are the same.

Method

This investigator has collected several case studies in unstructured situations while helping Indian families and solving their problems related to matrimonial, self-concept, economical, loneliness as well as child rearing related to dating, food, and freedom in the last 20 years.

As a concern person in the community; I involve myself with only indian families. There was no charge for counseling. Indian families were reached for counseling with insured confidentiality. The investigator perceived the problems to be related to "Conflict of Culture" as shown by resenting psychiatrist or Guidance Counselor's help among Indian community. Furthermore, the matrimonial, child-rearing problems were increasing so rapidly that the investigator felt the need to present case studies to other professionals, who are involved in the field of mental health and humanity, and to obtain their perception and response from a different "cultural" point view.

Instrument: The investigator designed two quizzes related to selected case studies.

Quiz 1: She selected six case studies, which are very common problems in the community, in which she included (1) name (2) age (3) number of children and (4) religion (5) occupation, (6) background, and (7) problems of selected case studies. Furthermore, at the end of the case-study she asked two specific questions: (1) What kind of counseling technique they would like to use? (List 40 techniques on a separate sheet of paper) and (2) What kind of results did they expect in this situation? (see attached)

Quiz 2: Details on these six case studies were given. These two quizzes were tested and standardized with the doctoral students from Guidance and Psychology at Texas Southern University, Houston, Texas, 1985.

Procedure: Subjects were selected randomly by professionals from the department of humanities, counseling and guidance, at Texas Southern University and from family practitioners from Houston and Honolulu, Hawaii. The investigator also interviewed more than 50 subjects randomly from a wide range of professionals.

Results

Quiz I: Table I, Item 22 question, Item 23 Listening, Item 37 Referral, Item 40 Behavior Modification. The result indicates that more than 75% of the subjects would like to apply questioning, listening, referral and behavior modification (Items 22, 23, 37, and 40) techniques in counseling for specific case studies. However, more than 50% of the subjects indicated that they would like to use "Referral" since it is very hard to understand different cultures. They have also mentioned "Eclectic" technique to resolve the problem in these case studies even though it was not in Quiz 1.

In Quiz II, more than 50% of the subjects indicated that they expect "divorce." However, they would like to know more about their "culture" to perceive the problem in depth. It is very hard to understand the problem in different "cultures."

In Quiz II, (1) More than 75% of the subjects felt that it is very hard to understand the case study from their point of view because of different values in different "Cultures." We only know about "Ghandhi" who was the leader, and another "Mrs. Ghandhi," who was the prime minister of India. We would like to use the "Referral."

(2) More than 75% of the subjects suggested the "Eclectic" technique should be used to resolve the situation in all cases.

(3) Twenty-five of the subjects commented that if they have to counsel, the first question they would take their clients would be, whether or not they would take a divorce?

(4) One of the counselors from Jordon presented that it is difficult problem for me to answer these questions because of different cultures, for example if I have to counsel related to "abortion" then because of my religious background; it is hard for me to counsel. However, I would like to use the "Referral" and Eclectic" techniques for these cases.

(5) Professional counseling can be helpful in all cases.

(6) In family counseling, it is important for the counselor and client to establish trust and to relate to each other. However, it is hard to relate to each other, when clients have a different "cultural" backgrounds, in relation to values.

(7) Family practitioners from Honolulu strongly suggested that they need more research in cross-cultural counseling especially in family practice because we do come across so many cases everyday related to "Cross-Culture" marriages and their problems related to their children, due to an Army base. The new generation think marriage is just a piece of paper", but when an individual's emotions and children are involved in conflicting situations, then it affects the mental health of the clients. It is very hard to understand the situation of the clients because of a different value systems and their "culture."

Discussion

The results of Quizzes I and II indicate that majority of the respondents (more than 75%) have difficulties in understanding another "Culture," especially Indian "culture."

They have also indicated that they would like to use "Referral" for these case studies and "Eclectic" technique for their counseling.

However, there is a "Social Stigma" attached among the Asian community related to asking for help from psychiatrist because they fear that friends, and relatives may consider them emotionally unsound according to Chandaras (1974). Secondly, the counselor must work within the context of the informal helping system to which the client is exposed. The extended family is the center of the person's universe in most parts of the world. The extended family includes cousins, aunts, uncles and grandparents according to Brammer (1978). You may perceive in all case studies that most of the Indian clients resolve the problem by "compromise" and their family usually intervene their matrimonial problem. Thirdly, formal counseling services are scarce and expensive in developing countries. Sophisticated young university students seek traditional sources to help through their extended families (Brammer, 1969). Therefore, even these Indian families that are exposed to Western culture, tend to seek help from their families because of traditional values.

Furthermore, there may not be enough counselors available in schools or in the community to reach clients from different cultural groups in the United States, so it is very important for guidance counselors and researchers to do more research in the area of "cultural conflict" and to find out innovative strategies to help clients, who come from another "culture." Now let us examine a few of the selected case studies and try to understand the "Conflict of Culture" between East-West.

Figure I

Children
Freedom Loneliness
Religion Indian Family Extended Family
Exposure Economy

Caste - Custom

This chart indicates the conflict between East-West in relation to value-conflict.

Culture is inherent in all counseling relationships because differences of value assumptions influence our choices of communication style, interpretations of others' behavior, understanding of the problem, and comfortableness within the counseling environment. Therefore, counselors need to be aware of the influence of cultural values upon the expectations, methodology, content, and goals of the counseling relationship according to Stephen (1978). For example, if one examines the case studies, one can find that most of the Indians have arranged marriages, and selected their mate from their own caste which is hard to understand by Western counselors who believe marriage follows love. Religion is also one of the significant aspects of the "Culture" that affects the behavior of the Indian family related to food habits, marriage practices, and child-rearing ceremonies, which is very hard and conflicting for western counselors to understand.

Now, if we examine the Diagram I, what happens when Indian families or even Asian families or an individual migrates from east to west. First, these families will bring their "Cultural Bag" that is filled with their values related to marriage, child-rearing practices, food habits, religion, customs related to funerals and life-style. Now, suddenly they are exposed to western culture, which is so different from the East. In the beginning they experience "Cultural Shock," and they may fine experience more exciting. However, when time passes by and when an individual comes out from "Cultural Shock," they try to assimilate their values from East to West to enter into the main stream, at that time. They find it difficult to assimilate, which creates "cultural conflict." For example, when Indian women perceives American women driving their own car, having economical independence, and establishing equality with their husbands, it makes her wonder when she may start dreaming of having equality with her husband, economical independence and freedom for herself. However, most of the Indian families have lived in the extended family and have their roots so deeply related to Indian culture that it creates "Conflict" within themselves that affects their mental health. In a few case studies you may find professional Indian women economically independent, but they find it difficult to resolve their family situations because a of number of variables which creates "conflict."

1. An Indian women will hesitate to divorce because "Social Stigma" is attached. Society will resent her action, and she will find it difficult to remarry.

2. Most of the Indian families will give priority to their children, which is so different from western culture, and Indian women will sacrifice their lives for their children.

3. Most of the Indian men and women will try to adhere to their traditional "culture" because they are raised in Indian culture and like to observe the typical role of Indian women even though they like to see Indian women be independent economically like American women. They like to have their cake and eat it too.

4. Sometimes Indian men and women are changing in their attitudes towards their wives and children because of industrial and technological impact of the society in the world. But is also creates "Culture Conflict" within themselves when they have to choose between Eastern and Western cultural value.

Another major area of "Conflict" is related to child-rearing. Indian families, who migrate from the East are usually taught to obey and to respect their parents and elders. Most of the Indian families are authoritarian where men are the head of the household. Suddenly, they are faced with the problems of their children, who are exposed to western culture, would like to have freedom, like to have dates eat hamburgers and hot dogs as like their American friends.

However, Indian parents would like to raise their children typically in an Indian way because they were raised in the Indian culture and expect their children to be like them, which creates a "Cultural Conflict" that affects the mental health of the family. Furthermore, some Indian parents feel threatened and develop fear in their own minds about the behavior of their children, so some parents accept the consequences.

In conclusion, Indian as well as Asian families, who have migrated from the East to the West need to have guidance and counseling according to their needs and cultural backgrounds. Guidance counselors, researchers, educators, trainees, and

A CASE HISTORY EXAMINATION

Case I

Manu and Meena married in their twenties, a marriage which was arranged by their parents. They were both, reared and educated in a large city, located in the Southern part of India. Manu is an engineer and Meena is a medical doctor. She pursued her career after marriage. They have two little girls.

Suddenly, they decided to migrate with their family to the United States for a better opportunity. However, both were in their thirties and had established a comfortable life-style. Upon arrival to the United States Meena continued her career and was quite successful, however, Manu did not seem able to move forward.

Conflict arose in their marriage when feelings of inferiority surfaced as Meena became a success and surpassed her husband. Meena also began to change. She was no longer the submissive Indian girl, but started making her own decisions. Her husband wanted her to become Americanized; however, he also wanted her to remember typical Indian woman, who would be content to be at home, cook and wait on her husband. (Having his cake and eating it too).

They also had conflict regarding their children. The preferred their children to be vegetarians, and would like for them to follow the Indian life-style. However, they became concerned that their girls would take on American characteristics because of their schooling with American friends (peer group influence). Both parents began to have occasional friction regarding their children, and both experienced tension all of the time. However, they did seek the help of a marriage counselor and eventually they were able to compromise in their life-style and are living together happily inspite of occasional friction.

CASE II

Beju was dreaming about the United States when he was a little boy. His dream came true. He came to the United States to further his studies in his early twenties. He was brought up in a small town, Punjab, India, and his parents were Orthodox Hindu.

He was a student in the United States he met an Indian woman, who was Christian and a nurse on the campus. They got married and had two children; one boy and one girl. He continued his career in business education and became a professor.

The marriage was problematical from the very beginning, but both were trying hard to patch up differences primarily because of the children. They failed in their effort and their marriage ended in divorce.

Following their divorce, their teenage son chose to live with his mother. He became difficult to manage and started causing his mother trouble. The mother was concerned about his behavior and asked her ex-husband for help. Soon they began living together but with a lot of friction. The impact on the child was so deep that the boy joined the Navy to escape the family even though he had a scholarship for his college education.

They asked for help from the family counselor, but it was too late. At present they both are living together, but like strangers.

CASE III

Neru was brought up in a small town in India. He was from Gujarat (Western part of India) his family was Bhramin. He became a civil engineer with the help of his elder brother. Neru and Neena had an arranged marriage in their late twenties. Neena was also brought up in the same town, and she was also Bhramin. She was a librarian by profession and worked while she was married. Both decided to migrate to the United States to better themselves.

They migrated to the United States with their son. In the beginning initially, Neena started her job as a librarian in New York and supported her husband, as he continued his education in engineering. However, Neena was feeling that her husband had an advanced degree, he would make more money. However, her dream was not fulfilled. Her husband had difficulty in getting job in his specialty, and she started feeling confused and dissatisfied. She filed for the divorce. Her elder sister in India tried to help patch up their marriage because of their one child. They were able to remain together and now have another son.

After seven-years both are confused regarding their marriage, and their children. One morning Neena left the house with the children and filed for divorce again. They both tried to seek help from non-proressionals (friends). At present, both are living separately.

CASE IV

Ramu was brought up in a small town located in Southern India. He was Bhramin. He, a scholar became a scientist (physicist). He married while he was in college. He and his wife have three children.

Ramu received a scholarship from the United States and moved his family where they have lived for the last 30 years. His wife was an Orthodox Hindu and wanted her children to marry in her own caste. She traveled to India to find a bride for her son, but unfortunately, she had a car accident and died instantly.

Ramu absorbed the American culture and started dating American women. Since his background was Indian, he could not adjust to the American women. He went to India, placed an advertisement for marriage in the paper, subsequently got married, to a young girl,, Punjabi, in her thirties, while Ramu was in his sixties. The young girl decided to marry him because of her fascination toward the United States. She came to the United States, but their marriage had problems for the very beginning.

Ramu came to realize his mistake and tried to seek help from a marriage counselor. Subsequently, he got a divorce. Surprisingly, since Reena, has no job skills or education, she asked for help from Ramu. At present, they are living together without the benefits of wedlock and no commitment. It is not unusual for Indians?

CASE V

Kanti was brought up in a small town in the Northern part of India. He was ambitious and became a heart specialist. While in medical school, he married Kamu, who was also from the same town and same caste. They have three children. Kamu was happy as a housewife with her husband and children.

Kanti was very ambitious, so he migrated to the United States and became successful in his profession. However, Kamu had problems adjusting in the United States. She had problems with her English, and began to experience difficulty in adjusting to the main-stream of life. Her social life, as a doctor's wife was good. However, she had conflicts within herself. She wanted to excel like American women and experience freedom. She wanted to be Americanized but at the same time would like to remain as an Indian.

She started worrying about her children. She began adopting the American way of life and started fighting with her husband daily. She left her husband and returned to India with her children.

Indian culture does not encourage divorce. Consequently, they tried to patch up their marriage. Finally, both Kanti and Kamu compromised. At present, they live happily together.

CASE VI

Jamu was brought up in a middle class family. He was from the big city, located at Southern part of India. He succeeded in his career as a physician. He fell in love with an Indian nurse, from his own caste while he was in medical college. They married and has three children. Janee was pretty and supported her husband, while he was in medical college. Both are Christian.

Jamu and Janee were ambitious, and they decided to migrate to the United States to better themselves. Jamu was very busy with his study and later on with his practice and Janee was busy rearing their children. Suddenly, they started having problems with their teen age girl and boy. Both parents wanted their daughter to marry an Indian boy, while the girl was Americanized and wanted to date American boys.

However, Janee managed to travel to India, and place an advertisement in the paper for her daughter's marriage. Subsequently, her daughter got married at the age of sixteen to a boy who was in medical college. They got their son admitted to medical college in India. The son could not adjust in India and came back to the United States.

Both were frustrated because of their children. Janee also began to change rapidly and wanted her career back as a nurse. Her husband was too busy with his work and she was feeling lonely. Consequently, she started her career inspite of the friction in her marriage.

They sought help from a marriage counselor. The separated for a while, later they compromised and at present they live together even with the friction.

The Changing Role of Women in Hong Kong and Its Implication for Counseling

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Abstract

Under the influence of patriarchy, the status of women was very low in traditional Chinese society. Women were subservient to their husbands and were expected to confine their activities solely within the family. They had little decision making power while shouldering most of the child care and household responsibilities. Urbanization and industrialization has brought about a change in women's roles in Hong Kong society. Women have more opportunities in education. There are an increasing number of women going out to work which tends to raise their status in the family as well as society. In this paper the author attempts to examine the extent of this change, problems generated by the changing roles of married women and its implications for counseling practice with women in Hong Kong.

Introduction

In the past few decades, as the result of industrialization and urbanization, the status of women in Hong Kong has risen considerably. With the increased chance of receiving higher education and women's active participation in the labour market, women have more choices in social roles. There is no doubt that women's opportunity for individual development and growth is greater. Women in their young adulthood experience more role confusion as society can no longer present clear guidelines for appropriate role choices. This is especially stressful for married women who have already had children. Some women in transition of the changing society experience institutional constraints on their ability to change, and internal doubts as to the 'rightness' of their changing (Berger, 1984).

Helping professionals in Hong Kong face value dilemmas when offering counseling to women clients who encountered these difficulties. This paper attempts to examine this phenomenon with the hope that it generates working principles for helping professionals to follow.

The first part of the paper is a literature review of the scope of change women in Hong Kong have experienced. It is followed by problems married women face subsequent to their changing roles; and its therapeutic implications are delineated.

Literature Review on the Changing Roles of Women in Hong Kong

The growth of Hong Kong since world war II from a backward fishing port to a major industrial metropolis represents spectacular change. The rise of new Hong Kong brings along not only the ecological phenomena of rapid urban growth common to the industrialized world, but also the intriguing problems of East-meets-Wests and old-meets-new (Yang,1981).

Societal attitude toward those roles appropriate to women have been undergoing great changes. As a result, women's role choices have expanded from the home to the work site. Still values and expectations from the traditional Chinese culture continue to survive under the colonial policy and modernized economic development.

Women's Roles in Traditional Chinese Society

In traditional Chinese society, women's roles were explicitly defined. The Book of Rites listed the " three obediences " for women. They were to obey their father before their marriage, their husband after it, and their eldest son on widowhood (Wolf,1979). A woman's life was circumscribed by men. Their social status was solely determined by their father, husband and son. Their social activities were subsidiary to men's activities. The ultimate goal of women was to marry into a good family which provide them a legitimate social position and a life long guarantee of financial support (Tsang,1986).

Discrimination and prejudice against women was institutionalized in traditional Chinese culture. This form of 'sexism' (Bonchier,1983) violated the basic principle of equal worth of all human beings, depriving women of the opportunity for growth and development. It conveyed a clear message to men and women on how to interact with one another, reinforcing hierarchical family interactions that structured social roles. Nevertheless, the confinement of women's activities to the home allow them to avoid the emotional burden generated by the dual role sets of occupation and family.

The Changing Scene of Women's Roles in Contemporary Hong Kong Society

All of Hong Kong society has become more prosperous. Yet the most impressive gains were clearly made by women. Table 1 gives the distribution in percentages of the population over the age of 5, by years of schooling for both men and women from 1961 to 1981. For women, the fraction with no schooling fell from 41.8 per cent to 23.1 percent; and those with college education rose from 0.8 percent to 4.1 percent. Women's rising educational attainment had the effect of increasing the market value of women relative to men.

This preceded significant equalization in labour participation behaviour between the sexes in Hong Kong. Table 2 gives the labour force participation rates of both men and women from 1961 to 1986. For women the labour force participation rate climbed steadily in the past two decades. The overall rate rose from 36.8 percent to 51.2 percent during the same period.

There is also an obvious trend for women towards late marriage and spinsterhood. The mean age of first marriage was 20.9 for women who married in 1961, and it rose to 21.8 in 1976. The percentage of mothers preferring no more than two children increased substantially among the younger educated mothers (Ng, 1981 ; Wong, 1985).

The change of women's roles and status in the society was well-documented by prominent sociologists, like Mitchell and Lo (1972); Wong (1972a, 1972b); Podmore & Chaney (1974) and Rosen (1978). Their research findings noted that working women had more influence and power over family matters like family planning (Mitchell and Lo, 1972); mobilization of family resources (Rosen, 1978) and family decision making (Wong,1972a, 1972b; Podmore & Chaney, 1974). They related with their husbands on a more egalitarian basis.

Nevertheless, women in Hong Kong have not broken away from their traditional family roles and tasks. In spite of the fact that work has become part of a woman's life, her responsibility in child care and household chores continue to be heavy (Y.W.C.A, 1982; B.G.C.A.,1983; Lau & Wan, 1989). The distribution of such responsibility between husband and wife is very lopsided - with the wives taking much more responsibility than their husbands. In the case of manual workers this is even more exaggerated (Y.W.C.A., 1982). A very conventional pattern of sex-role division between the couples in the family emerges from the data, with the mother as the primary child-minder and home-maker in the family (B.G.C.A.,1983; Lau & Wan, 1989). Men may share in the more enjoyable aspects of child-care but not in home-making. The phenomenon is prominent in New Towns like Tuen Mun (Chow, 1988).

Subjectively, women in Hong Kong perceive themselves to have more or less equal power in the family while their daily activity is more family oriented than that of their husbands (Shek & Yeung, 1986 ; Lau & Wan, 1989).

This pattern directly limits working women's choices in their jobs. Most of them prefer working in factories located near their homes. When they find that their work jeopardizes the performance of their family roles and tasks, they consider changing their jobs (Ng & Liu, 1987; Lau & Wan, 1989).

It is obvious that women's roles in society have been transformed from those in traditional Chinese Society; ever since careers are possible in modern Hong Kong Society. Careers raise women's status, making relationships with their families more equal. The existing social ethos emphasizes that family involvement is primary for married women. They are still expected to perform domestic roles and tasks. They may work as long as no one in the family suffers.

This role transformation has enabled married women in contemporary Hong Kong to experience the kinds of freedom that their 'mothers' did not have. Yet they pay a price in terms of increased stresses and tensions as the demands of the new roles are added to or conflict with those of the old ones.

Problems Experienced By Contemporary Hong Kong Women

Role conflict and role overload are two common problems contemporary Hong Kong women would likely experience after their marriage and the birth of their first child.

Role conflict is defined as any situation in which incompatible expectations are placed on a person because of position membership (Gross, Mason and Mceachern, 1958; Kahn, et al., 1964). When career roles are added to a woman's role repertoire, the potential for role conflict mounts. A husband socialized to traditional Chinese ways may expect his wife to be a good wife and devoted mother. A woman who is herself a job-holder may not nurture her husband as well as a wife who does not need to work. A woman who is independent and assertive at work may not easily change to a compliant wife at home.

Role overload is another kind of role conflict which is based on external time demands rather than inherent contradictions in expectations (Sales, 1978). Role overload is a common plight of young women who attempt to combine work, marriage and family roles: the understanding and dutiful wife, the caring and stimulating mother, the responsible and industrious worker or professional. Since these roles all require extensive time commitments, women who try to meet all the expectations for each role feel excessively burdened (Bernard, 1975).

Social institutions in Hong Kong are organized in a way which discourage married mothers from successfully fulfilling multiple roles. For instance, besides caring by the mother, there are three other forms of child care in Hong Kong namely paid helper (usually a Philippine maid), nursery, and care by the extended family (Cheung, Chau & Lam, 1986). Only those middle or upper class families in Hong Kong can afford employing a paid helper which presently costs $2800 per month. Lower class families would rely either on the care within the extended family or creches or nurseries. As a matter of fact, most families do not receive any assistance from their relatives such as grandparents, aunts or other siblings if they live far away from their relatives. Families living in New Towns like Tuen Mun are particularly vulnerable to social isolation. Alternatively these families can place their children in nearby creches or nurseries. But usually they need to compete with other families for a limited number of places since child care services in Hong Kong aim to meet the needs of the most deprived instead of serving as a supplementary service in the community that releases the mothers to join the labour market (Hong Kong Council of Social Service, 1986).

Many women have felt it necessary to become "superwomen" as the price of remaining in the work setting. Part-time jobs become a better alternative for women facing the problem of role overload. However, part time jobs rarely allow for advancement which in turn may hinder the development of professional careers (Jordan, Cobb, and McCully, 1989).

Women in modern Western industrial societies experience similar changes in role participation (Lewis, 1978). They too face role conflict and role overload. In comparison with the Western "sisters", the degree of conflict and the amount of social pressure women in Hong Kong experience is greater because Hong Kong Chinese people are still collectively and family oriented (Ma, 1987). Collectivism is an affirmation to preserve and enhance the well-being of the group as the supreme guiding principle for social action. Accordingly members of the group are expected to subjugate their own inclination to group requirements (Ho,1985). Although Individuality is sacrificed to conformity, Chinese women are assured of collective economic and psychological security inaccessible to the individualist.

In short, failure to manage role conflict and role overload would lead to frustration and fatigue. Few women may feel overwhelmed and may seek professional help in learning to cope better with their busy world. Specifically they are in need of a repertoire of skills for communicating their needs positively and directly, negotiating the area of conflicts with their spouse or significant family members, effective management of their time, prioritizing their tasks and mobilizing society resources.

Implications For Counseling

Understanding women in a societal context is an essential principle of which counselors should be aware (Richardson and Johnson, 1984). Traditional approaches, in particular, psychoanalysis, tend to focus primarily on internal or intrapsychic conflicts rather than the cultural context that produces them (Lerner, 1984). Counselors under the influence of these approaches would naturally overlook the impact of social change on women and wrongly invest their energy to resolve their clients' 'pathology'.

A socio-cultural perspective enables counselors to have a holistic understanding of the problem contemporary Hong Kong women encounter. A woman's difficulty arising from her changing roles may not be a reflection of her maladaptive self. Probably the problem lies on her spouse who rigidly holds on the value of traditional Chinese society and cannot accept his wife's personal breakthrough away from her traditional roles. For example, the husband has not resolved his ambivalence about "allowing" his wife to go out to work but expecting her to provide a warm home environment for him and his children as well. He is not prepared to share his wife's emotional burden, let alone participate in household chores and child discipline. Counseling the significant others of women with problems of role conflict and role overload becomes an integral part of the service.

The match of the client's and the counselor's frame of reference is one of the necessary conditions for effective helping (Sue & Zane, 1987). Effective goal setting is half-way to successful management of the case. A common mistake easily committed by a counselor is, consciously or unconsciously, to be in favor of either the values of traditional Chinese society or contemporary modern society concerning the role performance of women in Hong Kong. This leads to the goals set for the clients being those of the counselor, not the client's preferred goals. It is wise for the counselor to help the client to arrive at their own goals through clarification of their value stance, needs, wants and possibilities within their situation; aiming at a mutually agreed position and attempting to develop effective skills for the resolution of their difficulties.

Counselors may assist women and their significant others to identify discrepancies between expectations and reality; their unfulfilled personal needs and skills required in the achievement of mutually agreed social goal. Possible areas of discussion would be on societal pressure and institutional constraints that impede women from taking up her changing roles; women's own guilt for abdicating her maternal responsibilities; couple's differing standards of house keeping and child care; husbands' and wives' unequal distribution of power; their ineffective ways of communication and time management.

Human beings have a vast potential to learn and accommodate new roles in a changing society. Human subjects are actively making choices, setting goals and organizing their actions according to their perception of the situation (Ma and Tsang, 1988). A counselor's role in facilitating learning is just part of the overall intervention to maximize the potential of clients.

The author is of the view that a structured learning programme has its potential contribution in improving women's problem situation in terms of their perception. The more recent development within the behavioral tradition, including social skills training approach (for example, Trower, Bryant, and Argyle 1978) and the cognitive approach (for example, Goldstein, 1981) are useful in helping these women to resolve their conflicts for numerous reasons. First and foremost, it tailors to the individual needs of the clients and is more scientifically rigorous in its intervention. It is prescriptive and provides a series of systematic training steps for the accomplishment of the counseling goals. It is relatively value-free, thus avoiding the counselor's possibility of imposing his or her value stance on clients. Last but not the least, the educational aspect of the learning approach and its assumption that the clients are lacking a learning experience; not that as inadequate people suits comfortably in a Chinese context where education and self-improvement are valued so highly.

Counselors should not assume that communication training has no role to play for the resolution of the problem. Good communication skills are needed by our women clients and their significant others because of differences in expectations and the negotiations that are required. Direct communication can be enhanced by learning to be positive, nonjudgmental and flexible, with a willingness to negotiate and compromise (Jordan, Cobb and McCully, 1989). Through the acquisition of new communication skills, our women clients and their significant others would work out solutions of their own.

Conclusion

With the rise of industrialization and urbanization in Hong Kong, there has been a transformation of women's roles in contemporary society which has heightened the likelihood of generating role conflict and role overload for married women who go out to work. Role conflicts and role overloads can be attributed to the reluctance of men to change and participate more in the domestic sphere; to the institutional constraints embedded in Hong Kong society and to an individual woman's lack of appropriate skills to master the multiple roles. The social stress and pressure on married women in Hong Kong is greater when compared with their Western counterparts because they are caught between the old and the new ways, surrounded by family members who may show little sympathy or understanding for their dilemmas or appreciation of the part that family members play in creating them. The need to understand our women clients with such difficulties within a societal context, the clarification of the client's value preference during the goal setting stage and the use of a structured learning approach in working seems to hold promise in helping women under stress cope well in the future.

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TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION AGED 5 AND OVER BY SCHOOLOING AND SEX IN 1961, 1971, 1976-AND 1981

	Male				Female			
Schooling	1961	1971	1976	1981	1961	1971	1976	1981
None	12.7	11.7	10.1	8.6	41.8	30.5	27.3	23.1
Primary	61.8	56.9	50.0	41.9	45.3	49.1	44.3	37.5
Secondary	23.0	28.7	36.4	42.9	12.1	19.5	27.0	35.3
College	2.5	2.7	3.5	6.6	0.8	0.9	1.4	4.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Hong Kong Census Main Report. (Hong Kong: Hong Kong Government Press).

Table 2

Percentage Labor Force Participation Rate in 1961, 1971, 1976, 1981 and 1986

	1961	1971	1976	1981	1986
Male	90.4	84.7	80.4	82.5	80.9
Female	36.8	42.8	43.6	49.5	51.2

Sources: Hong Kong Census and By-Census Report. (Hong Kong:Hong Kong Government Press)

BEHAVIOURAL APPROACHES IN A NON-WESTERN SCHOOL SYSTEM: HONGKONG RESEARCH.

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The behavioural approach to classroom management is largely a product of Western psychology. Most research in the field has occurred in the developed countries of the West. Is the approach appropriate to the needs of teachers and pupils in schools elsewhere? The paper attempts to answer this question in relation to secondary schools in a developing territory in the East - Hongkong.

The paper begins with some information regarding the education system found in Hongkong, and the cultural values prevalent there. It will then examine recently conducted Hongkong secondary school research in four areas: (a) the prevalence of off-task, unruly and disruptive behaviour, (b) teachers' and pupils' attitudes towards rewards, (c) patterns of teacher approval and disapproval, (d) the application of behavioural management techniques in classrooms.

The research in these areas indicates that (a) off-task, unruly and disruptive behaviour are very prevalent in Hongkong, (b) teachers and pupils have very positive attitudes to the use of reward to manage pupil behaviour, (c) the use of approval and disapproval by teachers compares closely with Western research, and (d) behavioural management programmes can be successful in Hongkong secondary schools.

BEHAVIOURAL APPROACHES IN A NON-WESTERN SCHOOL SYSTEM: HONGKONG RESEARCH.

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This paper reviews major features of the Hongkong education system and the cultural values of its people and asks whether the behavioural approach to classroom management is appropriate in the Hongkong context. Research in four separate areas is reported, all of it conducted in secondary schools. These areas are: (a) the prevalence of off-task, unruly and disruptive behaviour, (b) teachers' and pupils' attitudes towards rewards, (c) patterns of teacher approval and disapproval, (d) the application of behavioural management techniques in classrooms. The research in these areas indicates that (a) off-task, unruly and disruptive behaviour are very prevalent in Hongkong, (b) teachers and pupils have very positive attitudes to the use of reward to manage pupil behaviour, (c) the use of approval and disapproval by teachers compares closely with Western research, and (d) behavioural management programmes can be successful in Hongkong secondary schools.

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND CULTURAL VALUES OF HONGKONG

There are presently nine years of compulsory education in Hongkong for pupils between the ages of six and fifteen years. There are three types of school; government, aided, and private, which account for 8%, 60% and 32% of secondary enrolment respectively. Aided schools receive subsidies from the Hongkong Government.

Compared to many developed countries the Hongkong education system is quite poorly resourced. The average class size in secondary schools is around 40 pupils, almost double that for urban areas in the UK.

35% of secondary school teachers have no professional training, and 9% have no initial degree either (Hongkong Education Department 1987). Inadequate qualifications are a particular problem in secondary private schools. An unfortunate by-product of the system for allocating secondary school places is that the least able 12 year olds are most likely to end up in private schools. The consequence is that many adolescents with learning and behaviour difficulties find themselves taught by teachers with inadequate qualifications to do the job.

The situation for pupils with learning and behaviour difficulties is made worse by the fact that special support services are few. For example, educational psychologists are employed at a ratio of about one to every 40,000 school pupils; staffing which compares very unfavourably with most developed countries.

The commonest method for helping pupils with learning and behaviour problems is that of making them repeat grades. The proportion of pupils who are overage by the first year of secondary school is 35% (Hongkong Education Department 1984).

Around 98% of Hongkong's school population is ethnic Chinese, speaking Cantonese as a first language. However most schools place a great emphasis upon the development of pupils' English abilities. So-called Anglo-Chinese schools purport to educate their pupils through the medium of English. At secondary level they account for 90% of enrolment (Hongkong Education Department 1986).

Many pupils experience difficulty studying through a second language. The Government is aware of such problems and has recently taken steps to encourage the use of Cantonese as the medium of instruction. Individual schools and teachers have anticipated Government policy. More Cantonese has therefore crept into Anglo-Chinese classrooms.

The Hongkong education system operates within a Chinese cultural context which traditionally stresses the virtues of toil, obedience and the subjugation of individual needs to those of the group (Wheeler, 1988).

The work ethic is a particularly strong cultural value. The Chinese Culture Connection (1987) report research conducted in 22 countries using a Chinese Values Survey (CVS). They identified a strong factor (which they called Confucian Work Dynamism) not evident in western cultural values research (eg Hofstede, 1980). It strongly correlated with gross national growth in the period 1965-1984 in the 22 societies studied and was most evident in the responses of subjects in Hongkong, Taiwan, Japan and South Korea.

The cultural work-ethic in Hongkong is supported by massive pay differentials between unskilled and skilled workers (outlined by Morris,1985) and the international mobility that occupational success provides not only for the individual but also for his/her immediate family .

The Hongkong education system therefore places a high value upon exam success. Success in public examinations becomes a major goal for those pupils who can attain it. Public examinations influence the curriculum followed by pupils of all abilities, preventing the implementation of curriculum reform even where teachers hold relatively favourable attitudes towards change (Morris 1985, 1988).

Because of the emphasis upon academic (specifically exam) performance teachers tend to employ rather didactic lecture-type methods of instruction. Johnson (1983) remarks in his study of teacher language in secondary schools that teacher-talk accounted for an average of 50% lesson-time.

ISSUES OF APPROPRIATENESS.

Low levels of educational expenditure, large classes, poorly prepared teachers, inadequate support services, lack of attention to the needs of pupils with learning difficulties, and the use of a second language for teaching and learning may all place strains upon pupils and teachers and act to increase levels of off-task, unruly, and disruptive pupil behaviour. On the other hand, traditional confucian values relating to respect for elders, obedience and hard work may serve to reduce levels of such behaviour.

Chinese cultural values raise doubts about the usefulness of the behavioural approach in Hongkong classrooms. The emphasis upon obedience raises questions about the cultural acceptability (to both teachers and pupils) of reward. A tendency to subjugate individual needs to the needs of the group raises questions about the acceptability of special treatment such as that provided by many behavioural programmes. The work-ethic raises doubts about the acceptability and effectiveness of attempts to reward social, as opposed to academic behaviour in class.

Environmental factors may also make difficult or impossible the implementation of behavioural techniques. Large classes and exam oriented curricula are two cases in point, both making attention to social behaviour more difficult, especially when it may involve special treatment for one pupil.

The rest of this paper is devoted to a review of research into the appropriateness of the behavioural approach to classroom management in Hongkong.

THE PREVALENCE OF OFF-TASK, UNRULY AND DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOUR IN HONGKONG SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A number of research findings suggest that unruly behaviour (that which contravenes rules and accepted standards of behaviour in a class or school) is an everyday phenomenon within the Hongkong education system. The Annual Surveys of Unruly and Delinquent Behaviour conducted by the Education Department since 1982 indicate that senior staff in secondary schools deal with a wide variety of undesirable behaviours, some of which seem to occur very frequently and to involve a large number of pupils. For example in the period January to April 1985 a total of 33363 pupils (nearly 8% of enrolment) came to the attention of senior school staff as a result of 57405 incidents, nearly 90% of them involving unruly, as opposed to delinquent, behaviour (Hongkong Govt. 1985).

Data from elsewhere suggests that behaviour which comes to the attention of senior staff (and subsequently finds its way into the Annual Report) may be the tip of a very large iceberg. Student teachers at the University of Hongkong used the OPTIC observation schedule (Merrett and Wheldall, 1986) to observe secondary school teachers and their classes. Qualified and unqualified teachers were observed. Form levels 1 to 5 were represented. Average class size was 39. Total observation time for each class was 30 minutes. The study is reported in greater detail in Winter (1989). The data indicated that off-task pupil behaviour in secondary schools averaged around 30% and ranged from 3% to 75%. 25% of the classrooms observed displayed levels of off-task behaviour over 40%. These figures were comparable to those obtained in a closely comparable study conducted in urban schools in the UK (Wheldall, Houghton and Merrett, 1988).

Off-task behaviour (behaviour incompatible with the work requested by the teacher) is not always unruly or disruptive. However, the data reported above indicates that a large number of teachers in Hongkong are confronted by pupils whose interest and/or ability to learn what is taught is low. It is reasonable to suppose that some of these pupils may turn to unruly or disruptive behaviour and that only a small proportion of such behaviour ever comes to the attention of senior staff and the Education Department's Annual Survey.

Questionnaire research conducted by student teachers at the University of Hongkong supports the view that disruptive behaviour is a common phenomenon in Hongkong classrooms. A 1986 unpublished study asked 103 secondary school teachers to consider their last lesson on Wednesday mornings (believed to be a typical lesson) and asked them to indicate the types of disruptive behaviour that they believed to be most frequent and most disruptive. Categories of behaviour reported by Hong Kong teachers were similar in frequency and degree of disruption to those in a recent U.K. study (McNamara, 1985). In both Hongkong and England the most common disruptive behaviours were talking, orientating and non-attending. The most disruptive behaviours were talking and non-attending behaviours.

Interestingly, only 29% of Hongkong teachers reported no disruptive behaviour (compared to 32% in the U.K. study). Once again the evidence suggests that problems of class behaviour are comparable in these two locations.

TEACHERS' AND PUPILS' ATTITUDES TO REWARDS

1986 students at Hongkong University gave secondary school pupils a short questionnaire regarding attitudes to rewards. Sample size was 202 pupils. The questions were drawn from a study conducted in Australia (Sharpe, 1985).

The majority of Hongkong pupils expressed the view that pupils should be rewarded for appropriate social behaviour in class (54% of respondents) and for academic success (65% of respondents). The majority of those who supported the use of praise believed it should be given privately by teachers.

A 1989 unpublished study by Yvonne Chan attempted to replicate the work of Caffyn (1987), who examined the beliefs of UK secondary school teachers and their pupils regarding the use of reward and punishment in classrooms. Chan gave the questionnaire, translated into Chinese, to 17 secondary school teachers and two classes of low-ability Form 3 pupils.

The results indicated that Hongkong pupils and teachers believe a variety of rewards to be effective in encouraging better classroom behaviour and performance. Among those rewards believed to be effective were good reports, approving notes to parents, merit marks, and praise from teaching staff. There are clear parallels with the findings of Caffyn in her UK study.

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Taken together, these two studies show that Hongkong teachers and pupils express quite positive attitudes to the use of rewards in secondary schools.

PATTERNS OF TEACHER APPROVAL AND DISAPPROVAL.

Evidence from a large number of studies worldwide suggests that the way pupils behave in class may be related to the way in which their teacher responds to that behaviour. The University of Hongkong study already mentioned (Winter, 1989) examined whether it is true for Hongkong also.

It was found that Hongkong teachers overall responded more frequently to academic performance than to social behaviour (67% versus 33% of all responses). They also responded more often with approval than with disapproval (64% versus 36%). However, when responding to pupils' social behaviour in class, teachers used disapproval more often than approval (20% versus 13%). All these findings paralleled those of the Wheldall et al study in the UK.

A link was found between the use of approval and disapproval by Hongkong teachers, and the on-task behaviour of their pupils. Teachers who used approval (especially approval to pupils' academic performance) tended to have the classes who displayed higher levels of on-task behaviour. In contrast, teachers who displayed higher levels of disapproval (particularly disapproval to pupils' social behaviour) tended to have pupils who displayed relatively low levels of on-task behaviour. These findings are similar to those of the Wheldall et al. study in the UK.

THE APPLICATION OF BEHAVIOURAL APPROACHES IN HONGKONG SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A number of studies in Hongkong secondary schools are described below. All pupils and teachers were local ethnic Chinese.

Case Report 1

TL was a pupil in a Form 3 class, all of which members were among the 20% least able in Hongkong. TL came from a poor family who lived in a squatter area in Chai Wan. He had been disruptive during his primary and secondary school career. When he misbehaved at home his father apparently beat him. When he misbehaved at school he was typically scolded, made to copy school regulations, or given demerit marks. Punishments appeared not to work. TL continued to engage in disruptive and off-task talk, disturbed other pupils, failed to do homework assignments or bring textbooks, and displayed behaviours considered disrespectful by teachers.

His maths teacher decided that the most important problem behaviour was off-task and disruptive talking. He measured the rate for this behaviour using a momentary interval method, aided by a cassette tape which emitted a signal on average

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every 3 minutes. The undesirable behaviour was found to occur in 43% of all observation intervals.

The teacher decided to employ a programme which would involve all class members; at no time did TL realise that he was the prime object of concern.

Incredibly perhaps, the teacher believed that the problem behaviour would respond to punishment. The class was informed that any pupil who engaged in unauthorised talking would receive 5 extra homework problems. The immediate result, for TL at least, was that such behaviour rose to an even higher rate - 58%.

After careful thought the teacher realised that punishment techniques (a) might be providing attention that was rewarding the behaviour, (b) left unclear the desirable behaviours that it was hoped TL would display, and (c) failed to ensure the rewarding of desirable behaviour when it occurred. Consequently, the teacher implemented a simple Rules, Praise and Ignore (RPI) programme.

A set of simple agreed classroom rules was displayed in the class. Any pupil who followed the rules (including TL of course) received praise (usually private). Any off-task or disruptive talking was, as far as possible, ignored. The result was a general reduction of such talk within the classroom (most noticeably for TL, whose rate fell to 15%).

After 23 lessons using RPI the teacher began to consider ways of fading the programme out, first by removing the rules chart and then by praising at a lower and more natural rate.

Case Report 2

A group of Form 4 pupils displayed problem behaviour in their practical science lessons. These lessons lasted 70 minutes, during which pupils were typically required to set up apparatus, do an experiment, complete worksheets, present a group report to the teacher for marking, put the report into a drawer, dismantle the apparatus and tidy up. Unfortunately, pupils were inefficient in their use of time and often lacked the time to dismantle apparatus or tidy up the laboratory. Completed reports were often left on the work-tops.

A programme was initiated with the following three target behaviours (all concerned with tidying up). They were: (a) put the marked report into the the specified drawer, (b) dismantle the apparatus and put it into the correct storage area, and (c) clean table and floor surfaces around your work area.

The teacher decided that he could help the pupils develope these behaviours by teaching them to manage their time more efficiently and by motivating them to engage in the target behaviours. He put a chart on the wall which indicated the approximate amount of time which groups should spend (a) setting up apparatus, (b) doing the experiment, (c) writing a report, and (d) tidying up. A movable red arrow signalled the

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points at which groups should be moving from one activity to another. The teacher converted tidying up behaviours into rules and displayed them on a wall chart. He praised pupils who followed the rules, and told the class that the grading given to a lab report would be enhanced where a group had performed the three target behaviours. Any groups which did not display the target behaviours would retain their original lab report grade. Beyond that, their failure to do what was asked would be ignored.

The programme continued for four weeks before being terminated, during which time the number of groups tidying up rose from an average of 3 at baseline to 9. The change persisted even after the programme ended.

Case Report 3

Pupils in a Form 2 class in an Anglo-Chinese School were unwilling to speak English in their English lessons. They interacted with each other in Cantonese and answered teacher's questions either by giving one-word answers or answering in Cantonese. The teacher believed that the pupils found speaking English effortful and often embarassing. She therefore considered ways of motivating them to use English.

She told them that any correct answer given voluntarily in English would be awarded one merit mark whereas any correct answer given in English upon her instruction would be awarded one tick, three of which would earn a merit mark. Total merit marks earned by each student would form one-third of the total English oral marks received in the next school internal test. She emphasised that (a) pupils would be limited to a maximum of two marks per lesson, (b) preference would be given at first to those who had previously answered few questions, and (c) any pupil purposely answering a question in Cantonese would earn a cross, three of which would result in removal of a merit. Pupils would periodically be told their and classmates' scores.

The teacher encountered a few problems when running the programme. She found it necessary to give clues to help those who had difficulty in English, and to prevent certain individuals from dominating discussion. She also found it time-consuming to record pupils' marks. However, most pupils in the class spoke much more English and were more attentive in lessons.

The teacher planned to fade the programme out by removing the link between merits and examination marks, and instead displaying a chart to show pupils' ticks and merits.

Case Report 4

WTL was an 18 year old boy completing Form 4 in a subsidised school on Hongkong island. His academic performance and behaviour had deteriorated when he moved from primary to secondary school, and he had repeated Form 2. He was popular with classmates and had been chairman of the class association from Form 1 onwards. He was also a committee member of the

Maths and Science Society. He was active in athletics and extra-curricular activities.

His Form teacher (who also was his geography teacher) found that in class WTL showed little motivation and was frequently off-task. The teacher aimed to increase his on-task behaviour. She defined this as (a) looking at the teacher when receiving instruction, and (b) performing tasks specified by the teacher.

The teacher noticed that WTL was particularly off-task when she was lecturing pupils. She therefore made an effort to change her teaching method, adopting 'data-based learning with group discussion'. On-task behaviour rose only slightly (from 40% at baseline to 55%).

She then formed the opinion that WTL (a) had an insufficiently clear idea of what on-task behaviour was required, (b) received insufficient approval at those times when he was on-task, and (c) received too much (possibly rewarding) attention when he was off-task. She therefore decided to use a Rules, Praise and Ignore (RPI) strategy, comprising rules and praise for on-task behaviour, and planned ignoring for as much off-task behaviour as was possible. There was little improvement. This may have been connected with WTL's comments that he disliked public praise from his teacher, preferring private approval.

His teacher then made an arrangement with WTL that he would earn merit marks whenever he achieved an on-task rate of 80% in her lessons. She would also send notes home to his parents whenever he improved his behaviour. WTL's on-task behaviour increased considerably, reaching levels in the 80-90% range.

CONCLUSION

The research described in this paper suggests that the behavioural approach to classroom management is appropriate to the Hongkong secondary school context. Specifically, (a) behavioural problems are prevalent, (b) teachers and pupils display positive attitudes towards the idea of using reward techniques to confront these problems, (c) teachers are anyway already displaying patterns of approval and disapproval very similar to those in the West, and (d) where behavioural management programmes have been implemented, they have often been successful in effecting behaviour change. It therefore appears that this approach, although rooted in Western psychology, may have application value in non-Western societies.

Acknowledgements: to the students, too many to name individually, who were involved in the studies described in this paper.

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PROMOTING EXCELLENCE IN COUNSELING: THE MISSION OF CSI

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Chi Sigma Iota is an international honor society of counseling professionals and professionals-in training dedicated to excellence in scholarship, research, and clinical practice. We would like to provide information about the mission of CSI, membership eligibility, current membership, membership benefits, and CSI programs.

THE MISSION OF CSI

Chi Sigma Iota was established to promote and recognize exemplary attainment in the study and practice of counseling. Further, CSI supports and recognizes the profession of **counseling** through restricting its membership to those persons who clearly have a professional identity in this field. The scope of CSI is international.

MEMBERSHIP ELIGIBILITY

CSI is an honor society, thus members must meet appropriate standards of academic and professional excellence. To satisfy eligibility requirements, students must be enrolled in programs leading to graduate degrees in counseling, with a GPA of 3.5 or better on a 4.0 scale. Since the 4.0 scale is not universally used, particularly outside of the United States, membership criteria differ according to the system used; however, an equivalent outstanding academic record in a university with a different system of evaluation is required.

Faculty, alumni, and participating professional counselors who have given evidence of distinguished scholarship and professional services, including holding a professional credential and/or having graduated from a CACREP approved program, are also eligible for membership. Persons seeking membership must join through an approved chapter or through the Alpha Chapter, which is the ambassador chapter for U.S. members, or through the Iota Chapter, which is the at-large chapter for all non-U.S.A. members.

Chapters of CSI may be established at any accredited institution of higher education throughout the world. Chapters must be housed in a counselor training program.

CURRENT MEMBERSHIP OF CSI

The membership of CSI changes almost daily. Continued rapid growth is a well-established pattern. As of July 1, 1989, CSI had 89 established chapters, including one in the Philippines. Several additional chapters were in the process of development, both in the U.S. and in other countries. The total number of members was 3,753, including 121 Life Members, on the first of July.

Within the past year, Rho Chi Sigma, the rehabilitation counseling and services honor society, merged into CSI. This historic merger served to broaden the membership base of CSI and further establish the Society as the only academic honor society serving the counseling profession.

MEMBERSHIP BENEFITS

Membership in an international honor society can make a valuable contribution to one's professional development. It allows counselors to become part of an international network of professionals who ascribe to high standards of scholarship and practice. Local chapters encourage these aspirations through speakers, programs, and awards. The International Headquarters also provides leadership to promote these goals through a variety of activities, including a newsletter, member and chapter roster maintenance, annual recognition awards, support services to chapters, and an annual meeting.

A certificate of membership and lapel pin provide outward symbols of a personal and professional commitment to excellence in counseling.

CSI PROGRAMS

CSI sponsors a number of ongoing programs which are designed to further the goals of the society and excellence in the counseling profession.

DISTINGUISHED SCHOLARS

CSI has designated a cadre of outstanding counseling professionals as Distinguished Scholars. These persons were identified based on years of excellence in the counseling profession, particularly for their longstanding contributions in research, service, and professional practice. The Scholars anually present a panel on research and professionalism in counseling at the AACD convention. They also maintain a commitment to serve as speakers and workshop presenters for CSI chapters at no charge beyond basic expenses. The CSI Headquarters provides small grants to chapters to assist in meeting the travel expenses of the Scholars. At present, the list of CSI Distinguished Scholars includes:

Dr. George Gazda
Dr. Kenneth B. Hoyt
Dr. Bruce Shertzer
Dr. George N. Wright
Dr. John Holland
Dr. Joanne Harris-Bowlsby
Dr. Thelma J. Vriend
Dr. Garry R. Walz
Dr. John Krumboltz
Dr. Donald E. Super
Dr. C. Gilbert Wrenn
Dr. John M. Whitely

AACD LIBRARY

CSI has donated a bookshelf and perpetual plaque to the AACD library. Inscribed on the plaque are the names of the Distinguished Scholars. Included on the bookshelf will be the collected works of each of these outstanding professionals.

CSI also has made a commitment to support the research and service component of the AACD library to assist counselors and counselors-in-training in the conduct of research activities. Specifically, CSI provides funds amounting to more than $3,000 for 6 years ($500 per year).

LEADERSHIP IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP AWARDS

Each year CSI solicits nominations for the CSI Leadership in Counselor Education Fellowship Awards. Students and other emerging leaders in the counseling profession are nominated by their chapters based on academic and professional excellence. The awards include a plaque, $200 stipend for attendance at the AACD convention, and the opportunity for leadership training relative to AACD leadership positions provided by the Distinguished Scholars and AACD past-presidents.

CSI AWARDS PROGRAM

CSI presents a number of awards annually at the CSI Awards Banquet which is held during the AACD convention. The premier award is the Research Award, which is presented for outstanding research by students and other professionals in counseling. The award is co-sponsored by the ERIC/CAPS, which donates three gift certificates in the amounts of $100, $75 and $50 for the research award winner and two runners-up.

CSI also presents awards for outstanding entry-level and doctoral students, outstanding service to the CSI chapter, and three chapter awards to those chapters having the outstanding newsletter, outstanding individual proram, and overall outstanding chapter.

CSI ANNUAL MEETINGS

The CSI annual meetings are held each year in conjunction with the AACD convention. The major activities include a research colloquium conducted by three of the Distinguished Scholars, leadership training, and the CSI annual business meeting. An awards reception is always held, and most recently was attended by more than 500 persons.

CSI NEWSLETTER

The CSI Newsletter, published three times each year, is a rich source of information about CSI member and chapter activities, and inovative ideas and programs in the counseling field. It is a major vehicle for networking among CSI's diverse members.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

CHI SIGMA IOTA has filled an existing gap in the counseling and human development professions. Through an emphasis on excellence in academic work and clinical practice, CSI is helping to further establish the unique identity of counselors and the counseling profession.

Counseling In The 21st Century

- A Relativistic Look -

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INTRODUCTION

What will the whole idea of counseling look like in the 21st Century? Will then the computer be taking over counselor's role? These may seem legitimate self-inquiries that all of us who are engaged in counseling are supposed to answer by the turn of the century. However, let's not try to get an immediate answer for a while but take a look about how far we have come.

Before counseling was established as a recognized method of intervention, our history shows that we have come a long way from the unbelievably cruel and inhumane treatment of the mentally ill in ancient times. For example, according to the ancient writings found in China, Greece, Hebrew, or Egypt, flogging, starving, immersing the mentally ill in cold water, using chains, performing skull operations, along with praying, noise-making, etc., were some popular treatments.

These treatments were in the hands of early shamans (or medicine men), since the mentally ill in ancient times seemed to attribute such illness to demons which had taken possession of the individual. Therefore, the mentally ill in those times, or "the clients" to use our up-to-date language, were considered nothing but demon-possessed individuals, while the shaman was thought to be the helping professional who had magical or supernatural powers to cure the individual. Here, the relationship between the shaman and the mentally ill was that of a vertical nature, and the mentally ill was thought to be weak, passive, and situated down on the vertical scale.

In medieval times, the mental illness was observed as mass madness which was largely treated in monasteries. It was the clergy who treated such people with considerably kindness with prayer, hot water, sanctified ointments, or mild exorcism. However, there still existed a belief in which the demon-possessed individual was considered either a victim who was punished by God for his sins or a witch who exercised supernatural power on others. For this, the mentally ill unwillingly received almost all sorts of inconceivable persecutions;operations on the head, hot irons, circulating swings, beheading or strangulation before being burned, to name a few (Bromberg,1937;Stone,1937;Zilboorg & Henry,1941;Sigerist, 1943;Gloyne,1950; Rosen,1967).

These treatments reflected the attitudes of the people in those times toward demonic power or witchcraft. It was the time, before the reforms begun by Philippe Pinel(1745-1826) in France in the 18th Century, when violence was thought to be the best treatment for the mentally ill (Coleman & Broen, 1972). Although the clergy or those who administered treatments were supposed to take the role of "counselor" to use up-to-date language, the literature shows that they did not. Rather, in reality, the "counselor" made all life and death related decisions which were supposed to be left to the mentally ill and exercised power over them. The mentally ill did not have any rights about their treatment, being left helpless and miserable.

As natural sciences developed from the 16th Century on, the existence of demonology and witchcraft began to be questioned and a better approach to the mentally ill was expected, but little progress was made. In 1547, the monastery of St. Mary of Bethlehem at London was made into a mental hospital by Henry III. After that, mental hospitals were established in such countries as Mexico(The San Hipolito, 1566), France(La Maison de Charenton, 1641), Moscow(1764), Vienna(Lunatics Tower, 1784), the United States of America(The Pennsylvania Hospital at Philadelphia, 1756 and a hospital in Williamsburg, Virginia, 1773).

Although these hospitals were established, the mentally ill were still treated more like beasts ;shackled to the walls of cells by iron collars; hands and feet were chained(Selling, 1943). These hospitals were often called "asylums" or "shrines" and had to be improved in many ways, of which the most urgent was on the human aspects of the mentally ill-providing,food and proper facilities to rest, security, freedom to move, etc. However, our journey towards meeting the improvement had to take a long and hard-to-endure path.

It was not until 1792, when Philippe Pinel at the Bicetre and Salpetriere hospitals finally removed the chains and other physical restraints from some of the mentally ill, first as an experiment to see if the mentally ill would show more favorable results and later as a reform in treatment. His experiment was at first regarded as dangerous and stupid until it resulted in great success.

With Pinel's great success, humanitarian reform of mental hospitals became widespread; in England William Tuke(1732-1822), an English Quaker;in the United States of America Benjamin Rush(1745-1813), the father of American psychiatry, Dorothea Dix(1802-1887), a retired school teacher and founder of some 32 modern mental hospitals, Clifford Beers (1876-1943), the author of "A Mind That Found Itself(1908)."; and many more dedicated people and a supportive public opinion contributed to the improvement of the treatments for the mentally ill.

In Japan, the mentally ill were treated in private homes until the first mental hospital was founded in Kyoto in 1875. Our history shows that some patients were chained , had handcuffs put on, or were confined in a Japanese style room, while some quiet patients were left alone. Possibly because of the idea of mercy which was an influence from Buddhism, it was said that the treatment was relatively mild and kind, even if the above devices were used. Nevertheless, when it comes to the basic human rights of the mentally ill, Japanese patients suffered from deprivation as much as those in other countries(Okada, 1964).

With the advancement of modern sciences in the 18th

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Century, especially these of anatomy, physiology, neurology, chemistry, and general medicine, mental illness began to be regarded as a sickness that resulted from organic brain pathology. Emil Kraepelin(1856-1926) was the most well-known among those who believed this organic view.

This organic view led to the establishment of the so-called "medical model," in which the mentally ill began receiving more humane treatment as compared to the treatment given in earlier times. In short, out of the medical model emerged the psychological views that certain types of mental illness might have been caused by psychological factors rather than organic brain pathology. This became known as "the psychological model." Sigmund Freud(1856-1939) was its first systematic advocator. Carl G. Jung(1875-1961) and Aifred Adler(1870-1937) were two other big advocators of the psychological model, although each established his own school.

Along with the psychological model, other models such as behavioristic, humanistic, existential, interpersonal, or transpersonal models have been developed within the context of the systematic psychological model. Each has been contributing to the welfare of the mentally ill.

The method that is used in reaching out to the mentally ill patient or client has been referred to as psychotherapy, where the person in charge, the psychotherapist, largely takes the initiative and responsibility in the treatment.

On the other hand, the term "counseling" became used to indicate a somewhat similar concept, often as a synonym but sometimes with a slightly different connotation - something that deals with personal, educational, and vocational issues, but does not deal with depth psychology(Patterson, 1966). This counseling is the main focus of attention in the present paper.

Before going on to discuss counseling, I should like to say what can be learned from reviewing the history of how the mentally ill were treated. The history gives an insight into where we should go from here:1)abandon superstition; 2)respect basic human rights; 3)treat the mentally ill as human beings; 4)believe their ability to find the meaning of their suffering; 5)reorganize the whole system of how we relate to each other; 6)alter the one-sided way of viewing them to a two-way communication or a relativistic look.

It seems, in my opinion, that counseling has been exclusively exercised among people living in the same communities. That is, there was a time in the early days of counseling when the Caucasian counselor was mainly utilized for the Caucasian client. The Jewish counselor served the Jewish client. Likewise, the black counselor served the black, and the Asian counselor the Asian. In this context, major classical theories and practices of counseling have been developed:Freudian, Jungian or Adlerian , and so on. This functioned comparatively well and contributed greatly to the development of counseling.

In those days, the particular group's value system was highly valued. The pride and identity that was special to a certain ethnic group was especially valued such that values other than those belonging to one's group were considered meaningless. Hence, exclusion and isolation were observed among ethnic groups. In short, counseling was thought to be a helping relationship that would be beneficial to people living in the same community, that is, a mono-culture.

This exclusion and isolation was also seen in sex differences: the woman client preferred a woman counselor. Also observed was a need for the counselor who could share the same alternative life style, for instance, the homosexual way of life.

Following soon after was cross-cultural or inter-cultural counseling according to the social needs at the time. There has been some interesting exploration into counseling in cross-cultural settings: for instance, the black counselor for the white client and vice versa(Marsella & Pedersen, 1981).

However, one of the difficulties was in how we define mental health and how we acquire a healthy personality, since these differed by sub-culture(Mardsella & Pedersen, 1981). Nevertheless, cross-cultural or inter-cultural counseling provided both the counselor and the client an enthusiasm and a challenge to learn from each other(Bryde, 1971).

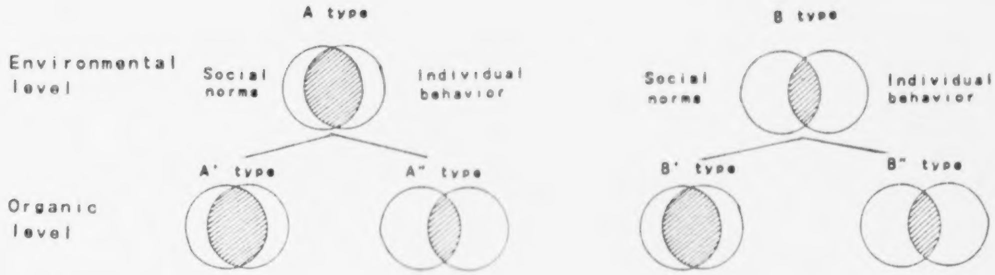
The above was an epoch-making development in the history of counseling, in that regardless of the color of our skin and differences that might exist in terms of values, behaviors, and life styles, there was something that we could share, developing together toward a better understanding of human nature:how we maintain and recover our psychological well-ness and how its destruction comes about.

However, this was limited to people living within a certain nation, for instance, the United States of America. It was seldom practiced among people coming from different nations. There might have been a language barrier in relating to one another , and more likely, there was no great necessity in doing cross-cultural or inter-cultural counseling as compared to the present-day situation where people's mobility is so wide that more communication and relations are taking place across nations.

In the 21st Century when the global age will be more accelerated, counseling may have to be more developed and skilled on a global level. For one thing certainly, the theories and practices that are based on the findings of a mono-culture or single nation will be less applicable. Hence, the necessity for developing something that will enable us to relate to each other on the global level;relating to each other and learning from each other while respecting and maintaining each other's indigenous values, identity and behavior. This will help the development of a relativistic look in counseling.

HYPOTHESIZED ADAPTABILITY AND PERSONALITY

The following is an illustration of the theoretical relationships between adaptability and personality from a relativistic look.



A type:There is consistency between social norms and individual behavior on the environmental level. It appears that adaptability will be high. However, this adaptability only indicates the degree to which consistency is measured on the environmental level.

A' type:On the organic level, conformity to the social norms is observed as follows;"I somewhat like the social norms and I find no difficulty in conforming to the norms. I accept most of the norms." Thus, this appears to be high adaptability. For instance, conformity in obeying traffic rules, marriage institutions, and educational institutions, to name a few. However, if the social norms themselves happen to be distorted, for instance, the holocaust in World War II, the attack on Peal Harbor and so on, what would happen?

A'' type:On the organic level, conformity to the social norms is not observed as follows;"I don't like the social norms somewhat, but I have to follow the norms for survival." If he is aware of what he is doing, he can be psychologically healthy and adapt himself. For instance, he knows that what he sells is not as good as he claims, but he sells it for survival. However, if he is aware that he can no longer tolerate what he is doing but he can't quit what he is doing, he is split in his feelings, hence, not psychologically healthy and ill adapted to himself, even if he is conforming to the social norms on the environmental level. As an example, the same example as the above can be applied with a different state of mind. Since he knows what he sells is not good according to his judgment, he feels guilty and hesitates to sell when a transaction takes place. If he can quit, he no longer suffers. He is consistent, hence, psychologically healthy.

B type:There is inconsistency between social norms and individual behavior on the environmental level. It appears that adaptability would be low.

B' type:On the organic level, conformity to the social norms is low as follows:"I know I deviate from most of the social norms somewhat, but I can't accept the norms. This is my way and I like pursuing my way." Those who deny blood transfusions1 on a religious reason even if they risk their lives are one example of this type. Thus, this appears to be low adaptability to the environment, but as far as self-awareness is concerned, they know what they are doing, hence are psychologically healthy. But in terms of conformity on the environmental level they deviate from the social norms.

B'' type:On the organic level, inconsistency is observed as follows; "I know I deviate from the social norms somewhat and I try to follow the norms but I can't." For instance, those who commit serious crimes repeatedly even when they try not to repeat. Thus, they are not adaptive to themselves as well as to the environment, hence, not psychologically healthy.

What I have cited as examples above could be categorized differently, depending on how we see them. Basically, adaptability here means socially adaptive behavior, that is, socially accepted behaviors and what socially accepted behaviors are relative, because they are decided according to the value judgments of the society to which we belong, the time in which we live, or the situations where we are situated.

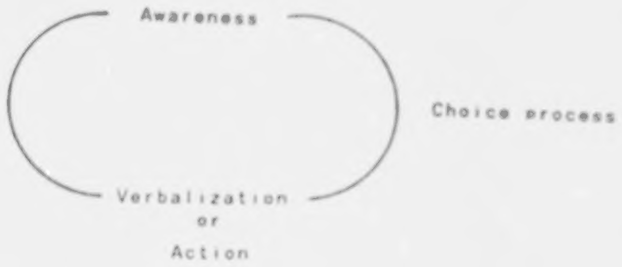
On the organic level, adaptability can be judged by well-ness or psychological healthiness. The judgment of well-ness or psychological healthiness can differ largely depending on the individual.

Therefore, adaptability seems to be relative in relation to individual value judgments, and cultural, historical, or situational factors. These factors will multiply at an more accelerated speed as we go toward the turn of the 21st Century, and the need to develop theories and practices of counseling that catch up to these factors is immensely increased. One response to meet this need might be the hypothesis which can be derived from a relativistic look in counseling.

This hypothesis is two-fold: the definitions of adaptability and personality; and, intervention methods.

Taking for granted that everything is relative, any human being is a unique existence in that he/she is worthwhile, and has the potential to find his/her own value. As to adaptability, it is defined as an ability to know what he/she is doing and keep maintain a balance in psychological well-ness or healthiness. Personality is defined as a function of inter-related factors such as person, environment, situation, and choice.

The psychological well-ness or healthiness is maintained when the awareness continuum illustrated below is functional.



SOME INTERVENTION METHODS

Any intervention methods that would meet the needs of people in the 21st Century should be firmly based on the mutual respect and the observation of what is obvious in the here and now. No judgment and no interpretation are necessary on the part of the counselor. What is important is to help the client discover that everything is relative, hence how "you" feel, see, and judge is worthwhile and helpful for "you" to grow, identify, or actualize.

Here, the counselor is expected to: 1) facilitate the client's awareness of his/her psychological well-ness or healthiness including sensation, feelings, wants, values, etc. One example might be:"What are you feeling now, when you say you are alone leaving your family behind in a remote country?"

2)Help the client make contact with what he/she becomes aware of or what he/she is experiencing: "If, in your imagination, you were able to see and say a few words to your mother in a remote country, what would you like to say to her?"

3)Help the client verbalize including any expression of the above:"What came to your mind when you said "I miss you, mother!?" "Please describe more about your experience."

4)Help the client expand his/her perspective in looking at the issues concerning him/her:"What is it that you now see as something new to you after describing about your relations to your mother?"

5)Help the client identify with or find the meaning of his/her experience:"What does it mean to you, if anything, that you feel alone?"

6)Respect the client's decision making process according to his/her own value judgment and choice;"I respect what you decided. I hear you say it is your choice that you would not go back to your mother immediately, and it is quite alright for you, no matter how badly you miss your mother."

Certainly, this is based on the " educational model," not the medical model. By the educational model, I mean, it is not treatment such as a medical doctor would make with prescriptions and diagnosis for the patients and the patients largely dependent on the doctor. Rather, it is a person who comes to counseling and discovers what his/her issues are, and verbalizes, clarifies, elaborates. finds meanings, and decides what is valuable to him/her according to his/her choice.

This look is based on the premise that everything is relative, hence what is problematic or meaningless to one person could be a challenge to grow or a meaningful experience to others. This look could be fostered more and accelerated toward the turn of the century. Therefore, this might develop, in an extreme case, as a non-authoritarian intervention method, something like peer counseling.

My assumption is that more opportunities for the peer counseling type of intervention will be increased, while in class rooms or community centers the educational or preventive intervention methods, rather than medical or remedial, will be more enhanced.

Lastly, the global age or globalization is undoubtedly progressing at a rapid speed. Let us think about and prepare together for the kind of lifestyle and the kind of counseling awaiting for us in the 21st Century.

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THE CAREER FITNESS PROGRAM: EXERCISING YOUR OPTIONS

Presenter: LISA RAUFMAN, Career Development Specialist, Moorpark College, M.S., Counseling, Cal State University at Los Angeles, 1973; doctorate in progress, UCLA in Higher Education, Work and Adult Development

The Career Fitness Program: Exercising Your Options is the title of the book that I co-authored. This text is used in two year and four year colleges throughout the United States. This book is the basis for a semester long "career development class" that requires students to enlarge their perspective about "career" from an occupational perspective to a life perspective in which "occupation" has a place and a meaning.

This presentation will provide an overview of the trends in the job market in the United States. Many of these trends suggest that, more than ever before, people will be making career changes. Typically, adverse economic conditions or unforeseen changes in the job market are considered the reasons for a career change; these need not be the main reasons why people seek new jobs. "The career fitness program" illustrates how people may seek new careers, as Donald Super might say, to implement their true or new self concept. Thus, another part of this presentation will focus on the techniques used in career classes that teach students to examine their needs, values, skills, interests. These techniques motivate students to make decisions about their future that enhance their self concept.

At this point, for the written presentation, I want to highlight one basic teaching technique: the importance of group interaction for students motivation. I have found that teaching techniques that emphasize group interaction play an important role in students learning about themselves. In every class session I try to incorporate the following key ingredients (these have been attributed to Confucius):

"I hear and I forget
I see and I remember
I do and I understand"

Thus I lecture about a subject that the students read about during the week and then I create a group activity that actively involves the students in experiencing the meaning behind the reading. As time permits, I end the class session with students writing about what they learned in the session that applies to their life situation. The text provides both concepts and exercises that allow students to see how career development concepts apply to their lives. Meanwhile, an Instructor's Guide provides me with suggestions transforming end of chapter exercises into group interactions.

Before I start my overview of the job market trends, I want to emphasize another reason for the importance of group activities. As most counselors know, group interaction develops a feeling of comradery, more students get to know other students personally. I teach in a community college where the majority of students are commuters who say they do not know very many other students. Helping students meet and share with other students may contribute to students staying in college. Meanwhile, from another perspective, teaching groups to work together in the career class also teaches important skills needed in the changing job market: communication skills and teamwork. The skills learned through group interaction may be more useful for students making career choices and changes than knowing the trends in the job market.

JOB TRENDS IN THE UNITED STATES TO THE YEAR 2000

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, between 1986 and 2000, over 21 million new jobs will be created. Employment will be increased from 111 million to 133 million. This represents an average growth for all occupations of 19 percent. It should be noted that these predictions are based on the assumption that there will be steady economic growth through the year 2000. The informmation about growth does not include future openings based on replacement of workers.

The growth will be predominantly among those occupations generally requiring post-secondary education. The greatest decline will be in those jobs generally requiring less than a high school education. (About 38 percent of the 21 million new jobs will require at least one year of college or more.)

The greatest demand will be for skilled technicians and service workers, particularly in the computer and medical fields, followed by managers and salespeople in small businesses. Together, these will account for half of the new jobs by the end of the century.

It will be much harder for people without a high school education because industries that have traditionally hired such people are becoming skill based, requiring workers who can deal with numerically controlled equipment, computers or blueprints. People without a degree are most likely candidates for the large number of service jobs that unfortunately pay the least: janitors, guards, food preparation, receptionists, and other restaurant and hotel entry level jobs. Retail sales will also continue to need new workers (over 200,000).

Finally, the following general trends in the U.S. will influence the job market:

* more women and minorities in the job market (two thirds of new workers),
* more college educated (over 25% of the population),
* one in eight jobs will be high tech, more global competition (the U.S. only generates 50% of the world's technology; a decade ago the U.S. generated 75% of technology; the Common Market and the Pacific Rim are becoming more competitive),
* more international conglomerates (thus the need for workers who are not ethno-centristic),
* more small businesses (between 1981 and 1985 small firms created 14.2 million new jobs), and
* larger numbers of senior citizens as well as the "baby boom" generation getting closer to senior management while not enough senior management jobs are predicted to be available.

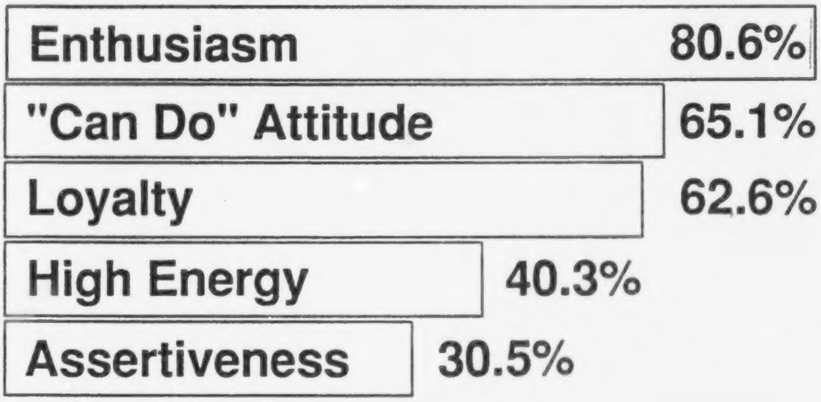
The rest of the written presentation will include seven pages of trends adapted from the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics and located in chapter five, The World and You, of The Career Fitness Program. The first two pages have been formatted so that each page can be used as overheads for a class session on trends. The next five pages are taken directly from the book giving specific predictions about the changing numbers of workers in growing fields and the percentages related to the growth.

The rest of the pages include the following:

What Makes Workers Succeed (personality traits)
Cross Section of Occupational Growth Areas
Fastest Growing Occupations, 1986-2000
Occupations with the Largest Job Growth, 1986-2000
20 Best Bets
Fastest Growing Occpations Requiring a High School Diploma or Less
Fastest Growing Occupations Requiring a Bachelor's Degree

What makes workers succeed

Executives say these personality traits are most important:



Source: Management Dimensions Inc.; survey of 241 executives from all types of companies

By Elys McLean-Ibrahim, USA TODAY

To accompany *The Career Fitness Program: Exercising Your Options*, second edition by Sukiennik, Bendat, and Raufman. Copyright 1989, Gorsuch Scarisbrick, Publishers.

Cross Section of Occupational Growth Areas

Health Services

Hotel Management and Recreation

Food Service

Engineering

Basic Science

Computers

Business Services

Human Resources or Personnel

Financial Services

Teaching

Maintenance and Repair

Artistic

To accompany *The Career Fitness Program: Exercising Your Option*, second edition by Sukiennik, Bendat, and Raufman. Copyright 1989, Gorsuch Scarisbrick, Publishers.

Table
Fastest Growing Occupations, 1986-2000, Moderate Alternative
(Numbers in thousands)

	Employment		Change in Employment, 1986-2000		Percent of Total Job Growth, 1986-2000
Occupation	**1986**	**Projected, 2000**	**Number**	**Percent**	
Paralegal personnel	61	125	64	103.7	.3
Medical assistants	132	251	119	90.4	.6
Physical therapists	61	115	53	87.5	.2
Physical and corrective therapy assistants and aides	36	65	29	81.6	.1
Data processing equipment repairers	69	125	56	80.4	.3
Home health aides	138	249	111	80.1	.5
Podiatrists	13	23	10	77.2	0
Computer systems analysts, electronic data processing	331	582	251	75.6	1.2
Medical records technicians	40	70	30	75.0	.1
Employment interviewers, private or public employment service	75	129	54	71.2	.3
Computer programmers	479	813	335	69.9	1.6
Radiologic technologists and technicians	115	190	75	64.7	.3
Dental hygienists	87	141	54	62.6	.3
Dental assistants	155	244	88	57.0	.4
Physician assistants	26	41	15	56.7	.1
Operations and systems researchers	38	59	21	54.1	.1
Occupational therapists	29	45	15	52.2	.1
Peripheral electronic data processing equipment operators	46	70	24	50.8	.1
Data entry keyers, composing	29	43	15	50.8	.1
Optometrists	37	55	18	49.2	.1

The Bureau of Labor Statistics predicts the labor force will grow at only half the rate experienced in the mid-1970s, while job opportunities will grow by more than a million a year, topping 122 million by 1995. There are now 106.5 million jobs.

Out of the fastest growing occupations, only six will require a baccalaureate degree for job entry, while most of the other jobs will require some form of post-secondary education. The associate degree is becoming the preferred entry ticket for a whole host of midrange occupations.

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Table
Occupations with the Largest Job Growth, 1986-2000, Moderate Alternative (Numbers in thousands)

Occupation	Employment		Change in Employment, 1986-2000		Percent of Total Job Growth, 1986-2000
	1986	Projected, 2000	Number	Percent	
Salespersons, retail	3,579	4,780	1,201	33.5	5.6
Waiters and waitresses	1,702	2,454	752	44.2	3.5
Registered nurses	1,406	2,018	612	43.6	2.9
Janitors and cleaners, including maids and housekeeping cleaners	2,676	3,280	604	22.6	2.8
General managers and top executives	2,383	2,965	582	24.4	2.7
Cashiers	2,165	2,740	575	26.5	2.7
Truck drivers, light and heavy	2,211	2,736	525	23.8	2.5
General office clerks	2,361	2,824	462	19.6	2.2
Food counter, fountain, and related workers	1,500	1,949	449	29.9	2.1
Nursing aides, orderlies, and attendants	1,224	1,658	433	35.4	2.0
Secretaries	3,234	3,658	424	13.1	2.0
Guards	794	1,777	383	48.3	1.8
Accountants and auditors	945	1,322	376	39.8	1.8
Computer programmers	479	813	335	69.9	1.6
Food preparation workers	949	1,273	324	34.2	1.5
Teachers, kindergarten and elementary	1,527	1,826	299	19.6	1.4
Receptionists and information clerks	682	964	282	41.4	1.3
Computer systems analysts, electronic data processing	331	582	251	75.6	1.2
Cooks, restaurant	520	759	240	46.2	1.1
Licensed practical nurses	631	869	238	37.7	1.1
Gardeners and groundskeepers, except farm	767	1,005	238	31.1	1.1
Maintenance repairers, general utility	1,039	1,270	232	22.3	1.1
Stock clerks, sales floor	1,087	1,312	225	20.7	1.0
First-line supervisors and managers	956	1,161	205	21.4	1.0
Dining room, cafeteria attendants, and barroom helpers	433	631	197	45.6	.9
Electrical and electronics engineers	401	592	192	47.8	.9
Lawyers	527	718	191	36.3	.9

Source: Silvestri and Lukasiewicz (1987); Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986.

Table
20 Best Bets

Job Title	Training Needed	Total Employed	Growth by 1995	Salary
Accountants/auditors	4 yrs. college	882,000	34.8%	$ 35,000
Computer operators	1-2 yrs. technical training	241,000	50.0	16,000
Computer programmers	varies: 1-2 yrs. technical training; 4 yrs. college	341,000	71.7	24,000 +
Computer service technicians	1-2 yrs. technical training	55,000	56.0	22,350
Computer systems analysts	4 yrs college	254,000	68.7	28,500 +
Cosmetologists	6 mos.-1 yr. cosmetology school	524,000	29.0	16,800
Dietitians	4 yrs. college	48,000	26.0	24,800
Electrical & electronics technicians	2 yrs. technical training	404,000	50.0	23,000
Engineers	4-8 yrs. college	1,331,000	36.0	30,000 +
Flight attendants	Airline training school (some college preferred)	64,000	20.0	21,000
Food service & lodging managers	varies: on the job; technical training; 4 yrs. college	657,000	13.6	27,000
Lawyers	7 yrs. college	490,000	35.5	50,000
Medical assistants	1-2 yrs. technical training preferred	100,000	62.0	15,000
Paralegals	2-4 yrs. college	53,000	98.0	23,750
Physical therapists	4 yrs. college	58,000	42.0	23,000 +
Physicians & surgeons	8-10 yrs. college	476,000	23.0	100,000
Registered nurses	2-4 yrs. college or hospital-based program	1,377,000	32.8	20,000 +
Secretaries	varies: career or business school; jr. college; 4 yrs. college	2,797,000	9.6	19,500
Teachers, kindergarten & elementary	4 yrs. college	1,381,000	20.3	21,000
Travel agents	varies: travel school; jr. college; 4 yrs. college	72,000	43.9	17,000

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Table

Fastest Growing Occupations Requiring a High School Diploma or Less

	PERCENT CHANGE 1984-95
MEDICAL ASSISTANTS	62
CORRECTION OFFICERS	35
NUMERICAL CONTROL MACHINE-TOOL OPERATORS, METAL AND PLASTIC	30
PLASTIC MOLDING MACHINE OPERATORS	30
CASHIERS	30
COOKS, RESTAURANT	30
NURSING AIDES, ORDERLIES, AND ATTENDANTS	29
SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE AIDES	29
SWITCHBOARD OPERATORS	29
COMBINATION MACHINE TOOL SETTERS, METAL AND PLASTIC	29
BARTENDERS	28
HOSTS AND HOSTESSES, RESTAURANTS, LOUNGES, AND COFFEE SHOPS	28
PHOTOGRAPHIC PROCESS WORKERS, PRECISION	27
PHOTOGRAPHIC PROCESSING MACHINE OPERATORS	27
AMUSEMENT AND RECREATION ATTENDANTS	26

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986

Table
Fastest Growing Occupations Requiring a Bachelor's Degree

	PERCENT CHANGE 1984–95
COMPUTER PROGRAMMERS	72
COMPUTER SYSTEMS ANALYSTS	69
ELECTRICAL AND ELECTRONICS ENGINEERS	53
PHYSICAL THERAPISTS	42
SECURITIES AND FINANCIAL SERVICES SALES WORKERS	39
LAWYERS	36
ACCOUNTANTS AND AUDITORS	35
MECHANICAL ENGINEERS	34
PUBLIC RELATIONS SPECIALISTS	32
OCCUPATIONAL THERAPISTS	31
AERONAUTICAL AND ASTRONAUTICAL ENGINEERS	30
INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERS	29
CHIROPRACTORS	29
ARCHITECTS	27
OPTOMETRISTS	27

Each of these top three will generate less than 100,000 new jobs between 1984-95—adding in replacement openings will raise total openings to 500,000-700,000.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986

Table
Service Workers Are Projected to Have Larger Job Gains Than Other Major Occupational Groups

	EMPLOYMENT GROWTH, 1984–95	
	THOUSANDS	PERCENT DISTRIBUTION
ALL OCCUPATIONS	15,919	100.0
SERVICE, EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD	3,328	20.9
PROFESSIONAL	2,773	17.4
EXECUTIVE, ADMINISTRATIVE, AND MANAGERIAL	2,488	15.6
SALES	2,220	13.9
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT, INCLUDING CLERICAL	1,783	11.2
PRECISION PRODUCTION, CRAFT, AND REPAIR	1,425	9.0
OPERATORS, FABRICATORS, AND LABORERS	1,277	8.0
TECHNICIANS AND RELATED SUPPORT	913	5.7
FARMING, FORESTRY, AND FISHING	−107	−.7
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD	−182	−1.1

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986

Effect of Pre-Arrival Variables on Initial Adaptation of Taiwan Foreign Students to the U.S.*

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Each year, thousands of foreign students come to the United States to embark on advanced training at American institutions of higher education (Institute of International Education, 1989). While this educational journey provides an opportunity to expand one's professional knowledge and to develop in a new enviornment, it also poses the risk of alienation, depression, and failure to meet the challenges. What differentiates those students who benefit and grow from this experience from those who are overburdened and unable to cope with the demands of their new situation? In particular, how may students be best prepared for this journey before leaving home? By identifying pre-arrival variables which significantly predict to post-arrival emotional well-being, it is possible to draw implications for pre-departure interventions. Here, we set out to assess the initial adaptation of a group of Taiwan foreign students as predicted from pre-arrival variables.

Over the last decade, the number of students studying in the U.S. from the island of Taiwan has increased from 19,460 in 1980-81 to 26,660 in 1987-88 (Institute of International Education, 1989), constituting the largest group (7.5%) of foreign students in the U.S. In addition to their large numbers, more than 80% of them are estimated to remain in the U.S. upon completion of their studies (Chang, 1988; Taiwan Ministry of Education, 1987), making their adjustment here of even more serious concern.

Multi-Dimensional Model of Adaptation

For this study, post-arrival adaptation is conceptualized as absence of depressive symptomatology, and is measured by the Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D, Radloff, 1977). Pre-arrival variables selected for the model of adaptation represent six major dimensions: (1) demographic characteristics, (2) personality, (3) pre-arrival emotional well-being, (4) knowledge of the U.S., (5) resources for coping, and (6) anticipation of problems.

Demographic characteristics, such as age, sex, and socio-economic status, may influence adaptation. For instance, younger and undergraduate foreign students have been found to have more contact with host nationals, but older and graduate foreign students appear to be generally and academically better adapted (Church, 1982; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1966; Hull, 1978). Women have been found to have more difficulties than men (Church, 1982; Fong and Peskin, 1969). Fong and Peskin (1969) suggested that women from traditional cultures have more difficulties making a transition to highly industrialized societies because of the major change in social roles. In addition, Chinese-American women have also been found to report higher levels of depression than men (Ying, 1988). A similar pattern is hypothesized here. In addition, it is postulated that respondents from middle class family backgrounds are likely to adapt better than those from working class families because of the likelihood of greater similarity of lifestyles in the U.S. and Taiwan.

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* An elaborated version of this report will be published in American Journal of Community Psychology, 1990

Adaptation is also likely to be related to the psychological make-up or personality of the student, her/his typical style of interacting with the enviornment. Improved sojourner adaptation has been postulated to be correlated with open-mindedness, flexibility, cultural sensitivity, and extroversion (Church, 1982; Guthrie and Zektick, 1967), although few empirical investigations have actually tested these relationships (Brein and David, 1971). Here we utilize the three structural (or v) scales and the femininity scale of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI, Gough, 1987) to assess the personality make-up of the students.

The CPI's v.1 scale examines interpersonal orientation (Gough, 1987). Those who score low on this scale tend to be self-confident and assertive, while those who score high are introverted. Elevation on this scale is postulated to be associated with diminished adaptation, because internals are likely to withdraw rather than venture forth to learn about the new enviornment. The v.2 scale examines normative orientation (Gough, 1987). Those who score high on this scale have internalized social norms, are conventional and self-disciplined. Those who score low tend to doubt social norms and are restless, rebellious, and self-indulgent. It is postulated that increased scores on the v.2 will be correlated with facility in adapting to the U.S. The v.3 scale assesses the level of self-actualization, a sense of personal attainment, and realization of potential (Gough, 1987). It is hypothesized that those who have achieved higher self-actualization (elevated v.3 scores) in Taiwan are also likely to be more successful in adapting to life in the U.S.

Finally, the CPI femininity scale has been successfully modified into independent masculine and feminine tendency subscales (Kanner, 1976; Ying, 1989a). Masculine tendency is reflective of action-orientation, assertion, and competition; feminine tendency is indicative of emotionality, sensitivity, and submissiveness. In terms of adaptation, a positive relationship is postulated with masculinity (assertiveness is linked to improved adaptation) and a negative relationship is postulated with femininity (submissiveness and senstivity lead to greater emotional distress and poorer adjustment).

The third dimension in the adaptation model is pre-departure emotional well-being. This is operationalized as relative absence of depressive symptomatology and is measured by the CES-D scale (Radloff, 1977). It is postulated that superior emotional well-being prior to departure will be predictive of post-arrival well-being and adjustment.

The fourth dimension in the adaptation model is pre-arrival knowledge about the U.S., which serves as a basis for action (Coelho, Yuan and Ahmed, 1982; White, 1974). This knowledge is operationalized as amount of contact with Americans the students have had prior to arrival in the U.S., and an assessment of how much they know about life in the U.S. Increased prior contact and information are likely to facilitate post-arrival adaptation (Arsenberg and Niehoff, 1964; Church, 1982).

Fifth, adaptation depends on available resources. The major resources for coping assessed here are (1) language ability (both a subjective and objective assessment) and (2) the student's potential social support network in the U.S. It has been suggested that moderate language competence is associated with confidence, which, in turn, results in increased social interaction with host nationals (Blood and Nicholson, 1962; Church, 1982; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1966) and general satisfaction (Church, 1982; Deutsch and Won, 1963; Di Marco, 1974). It is not just language ability per se that is important, but also one's confidence in that ability. Thus, for this study, both an objective measure, i.e., the student's TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) score, a standard test required of foreign students for college entrance, and a subjective estimate of English language fluency (speaking, reading, writing, and understanding) are used. While both are indicative of language mastery, the latter incorporates an assessment of confidence. It is hypothesized that while higher scores are correlated with superior adaptation, the latter will serve as a more powerful predictor.

Additionally, adaptation is hypothesized to depend on another resource: the size of social support network available to the student (Church, 1982; Coelho et al., 1982; Furnham, 1984). This is assessed by the number of people the student knows at the univeristy or who live within one hour's drive from the university. The larger the number of friends and acquaintances living closeby, who may be called upon for assistance and support, the better the student's adaptation.

Finally, adaptation is postulated to be mediated by the number of problems the respondent anticipates prior to migration. It is hypothesized that those who anticipate more problems are likely to have more difficulties (Weissman and Furnham, 1987). Whether expectation of more problems is reflective of poorer preparation or emotional insecurity, it is anticiapted that it will result in a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Many previously identified difficulties faced by foreign students have been adopted for the present study (Church, 1982; Hull, 1978; Klineberg and Hull, 1979), including problems with language, finances, academic work, housing, friendship, food and climate, homesickness (for family and friends specifically and Chinese people in general), and discrimination.

Method

Participants were recruited at a seminar sponsored by the Taiwan Ministry of Education and the China Youth Corps, which aims to prepare students for their overseas study. The seminar is mandatory for all students who wish to study abroad. Recruitment occured at four such sessions in May and June of 1988. Participation was voluntary. A total of 172 students were recruited and participated in the initial follow-up during the fall of 1988.

Subjects

The sample consists of 81 women and 91 men, with a mean age of 25.6 (S.D = 2.5) at the time of the initial assessment. More than four-fifths (86.6%) of the participants were single. The majority (59.9%) did not belong to any religious group, about one-fourth (26.7%) espoused an Eastern religion (Buddhist or Taoist), and the remainder (13.4%) a Western religion (Catholic or Protestant).

In terms of socioeconomic status, about 80% of the participants came from middle to upper middle class backgrounds, based on Hollingshead's (1957) two-factor index of social position. Most grew up in the city (71.5%), while some grew up in a town (19.2%) or village (9.3%). Over half of the sample (57.0%) are in pursuit of a doctoral degree, and the rest (43.0%) expect to obtain a masters degree in the U.S. In terms of field of study, 39.8% are in engineering, computing science, or mathematics; 26.9% are in the social sciences and humanities; 18.1% in the natural/health sciences; and 15.2% are in business and management.

Instruments

Prior to their departure for the U.S., participants were given paper-pencil measures to complete, including the CPI structural and femininity scales (Gough, 1987), the CES-D (Radloff, 1977; Ying, 1988, 1989) and a questionnaire designed specifically for this study. The use of the CPI scales in this population is presented elsewhere (Ying, 1989a, 1989b). On the whole, the scales worked as expected. The translation of the items into Chinese conducted by Abbott (1966) was adopted for the study. The content of the instrument constructed for this study was described previously.

Unlike these independent pre-arrival variables, the dependent measures capturing initial adaptation in the U.S. was obtained via mail at the first follow-up, two to three months after arrival in the U.S.

Results

The range of possible scores on the CES-D is from 0 to 60, with higher scores reflective of higher depressive symptomatology. A score of 16 is associated with clinical depression in American samples (Radloff, 1977). A significant increase in CES-D score from pre- ($\bar{x}$=13.0) to post-arrival assessment ($\bar{x}$=15.1) was found (paired t=-3.0, df=170, p=.003). Women were significantly more depressed than men both at pre ($\bar{x}$=15.0 and $\bar{x}$=11.4, respectively; t=3.3, df=169, p=.001) and post ($\bar{x}$=17.0 and $\bar{x}$=13.4, respectively, t=2.7, df=170, p=.007).

Utilizing a regression analysis, with post-arrival CES-D score as the dependent variable, and the pre-arrival variables as indepenedent variables entered hierarchically, the overall model yielded an adjusted R Square of .20 [F(14,155)=4.0, p=.0000]. In the final model, these variables predicted significantly to pre-arrival CES-D score: Language Scale (b=-.27, p=.001); pre-departure CES-D (b=.24, p=.0045); TOEFL score (b=.19, p=.03); Anticipated Problems Scale (b=.16, p=.02); and the CFT Scale (b=.15, p=.05). Thus, higher depressive symptomatology at initial arrival was predicted by lower pre-departure subjective rating of English fluency but higher TOEFL score, poorer emotional health, greater anticipation of problems, and higher feminine tendency before departure.

Discussion

The significant increase in CES-D score from pre-to post-arrival is consistent with Klineberg's (1980) postulation that the initial period may be quite problematic for foreign students. Women were found to report more depressive symptoms, both before and after arrival in the U.S. In the past, it has been suggested that sex differences in depressive symptomatology may be largely accounted for by socio-economic variables such as education and income (Hammen, 1982). Since those differences do not exist in this sample, it is likely that the higher depression level in women is due to greater sensitivity to and willingness to admit emotional distress than men.

As expected, decrease in depressive symptomatology was predicted by improved self-assessment of language ability and fewer anticipated problems. However, contrary to expectation, improved TOEFL score had a positive relationship with increase in depression. Thus, it seems likely that it isn't so much how well one performs on the TOEFL (i.e., beyond a certain point, since all respondents obtained a score at or above 500 which is required by the Taiwan government for the issuing of student visa) but how confident one is about one's English ability. While the TOEFL tests listening comprehension, English structure and grammar, and vocabulary and reading, it does not examine speaking ability and courage and ease in conducting conversations, which are crucial in successful adaptation. The fact that superior TOEFL score was predictive of poorer emotional well-being may be suggestive of overachievement on the test, mediated by anxiety. Thus, while these two measures are significantly correlated (r=.52, p=.000), the subjective assessment is a better predictor of overall language ability and adaptation.

In addition to English ability and anticipated problems, emotional well-being at initial arrival was also predicted by pre-departure emotional well-being and feminine tendency. Pre-departure CES-D score assessed level of emotional distress while preparing for the move. Those who were more depressed and emotionally distraught before departure were likely to be more unhappy and distressed upon arrival. Finally, a strong feminine tendency, reflective of emotionality, sensitivity, and submissiveness, also predicted to poorer emotional well-being.

Some of the postulated predictor variables did not reach significance in the regression model. Socio-economic status, for instance, may have failed to do so because of its limited range in our sample. Other variables, such as knowledge of the U.S., were likely to affect and mediate others, such as number of problems anticipated and the development of resources, and thereby lose out in the final analysis.

While pre-departure characteristics alone were not expected to provide a full understanding of initial adaptation, the regression model was moderately successful in doing so. Even before arrival in the new country, it is possible to estimate how well a foreign student will adapt to the new enviornment.

Given the prior postulation that those who worry the most and expect the most difficulties are at greater risk, pre-departure programs aimed at confidence building appear most likely to result in improved initial adaptation. While this may come about partly as a result of increased information and language ability, these alone are unlikely to be sufficient, unless they also strengthen the student's perceived ability to successfully interact with the new enviornment. Since foreign students are reluctant to seek out campus counseling services due to the stigma attached and unfamiliarity with such services (Alexander, Workneh, Klein and Miller, 1981; Sue and Kirk, 1975), pre-departure (preventive) intervention is particularly important and likely to be beneficial.

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A WOUNDED SOCIETY: ABUSE AND ADDICTION IN THE UNITED STATES

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While it is imperative that counselors in the United States (as well as in other parts of the world) be aware of and trained in the identification, dynamics, and treatment of abuse and addiction, counselor training programs still offer little formal instruction or supervised practice in these areas. This deficit is also found in graduate psychology and medical programs (Nace, 1988) and thus reflects a serious inadequacy in training across the mental health professions.

The criticalness of this training deficit becomes apparent as we recognize such facts as the rise in hard drug abuse (i.e., cocaine and crack) in the United States (from 3% in 1985 to 8% in 1988) or the widespread incidence of sexual abuse [1/4 females and 1/6 males in U.S. have been sexually abused before they reach 18 (McGarrah, 1989; Poston & Lison, 1989)] or eating disorders (1 in 5 college females, Johnson, 1987), or the current pattern of polyaddictions which continues to proliferate and further complicates identification and treatment issues (i.e., Carroll, Malloy, Hannigan, Santo & Kenrick, 1977; Kaufman, 1977). Cross addictions include ingestive (alcohol, drugs, food) as well as activity (shopping, gambling, sex) behaviors that are compulsively enacted and appear to reflect, at least in part, the "microwave, quick fix" mentality to which a large segment of U.S. society adheres.

It is not surprising that addiction and abuse are correlated, with both commonly manifesting in the same populations (Bradshaw, 1988). Both problems are related to poor impulse control and impoverished or overwhelmed internal regulating mechanisms that are ill-equipped to deal with stress, strong feelings, self-esteem building and boundary control. It is surprising, however, that mental health professionals in the U.S. are so often unaware of the incidence of addiction and abuse in their caseloads and tend to minimize the severity of the symptomatology of which they are aware. As Parents Anonymous notes, "all of us tend to blind ourselves to unpleasant things" ("Child Abuse is Scary," 1977) and sexual abuse, alcoholism, drug addiction, and child abuse are all "scary" and riddled with cultural prejudices. Nevertheless, mental health professionals need to educate and discipline themselves to include in their ongoing evaluations the possibility of addiction and/or abuse, remaining cognizant of relevant treatment issues and options so that they can provide competent care and offer appropriate referrals.

Sensitization to addiction and abuse is especially vital given the authors' belief that all or nearly all mental health professionals work with these issues, even if they do not identify their clients as alcoholics or substance abusers or incest survivors. We believe identification is made more difficult not only because there is a great deal of hidden addiction (i.e., the depressed client who does not respond to treatment because of unrecognized alcohol abuse) and abuse (especially sexual) among our clients, but also because the dynamics and damage of addiction and abuse are now being recognized in adult children of addicts and abusers. The recognition that the damage of abuse and addiction is passed on from generation to generation has geometrically increased the number of individuals under consideration (Bradshaw, 1988). For example, the Adult Children of Alcoholics (ACoA) movement indicates that 1 out of 4 classroom children (Black, 1986), 1 out of 5 university students (Johnson, 1987) and 1 out of 8 Americans in general (Black, 1986) is a child of an alcoholic. Furthermore, these figures are conservative as they exclude children of other substance abusers (marijuana, cocaine, barbiturates, sedatives) as well as children of hidden alcoholics. In addition "adult children" populations disproportionately come from backgrounds of sexual abuse (24% of ACoA's are sexual abuse or incest victims; Black, 1986) and/or physical abuse and are prone to eating disorders (62% of eating disorders are ACoA's; Black, 1986), alcoholism and drug abuse. These figures indicate that all of us who counsel others work with the damaging effects of addiction and abuse on human lives.

Mental health professionals also need to be aware of and come to grips with the fact that many of us (up to 80%) are ourselves adult children of alcoholics or from some other dysfunctional family pattern (Bradshaw, 1988; Whitfield, 1987). Since issues of denial, shame, and co-dependency are hallmarks of addictive and abusive families we need to be particularly aware of these tendencies in ourselves, otherwise we may unconsciously use our clients to vicariously address our own conflicts or gratify needs we should be getting met or have addressed elsewhere. Professionals who have not worked through these dynamics can also be overprotective of their drug abusing clients and thus minimize their abusive behaviors. Such counseling professionals can also refuse to treat these clients due to their own self-protective avoidance mechanisms.

Many of us shy away from learning about addiction and abuse even when we have the opportunity to do so. This may be because of the discomfort related to our own history of substance use or internalized negative cultural attitudes and prejudices that cause us to view alcoholism or drug abuse not as a disease or a self-disorder but as a self-inflicted problem and alcoholics or drug abusers as difficult and untreatable manipulators who lack will power and self-responsibility (Ackerman, 1986). For all the reasons cited thus far, we believe that counselors need to engage in a continuous self-examination process through therapy, supervision, and consultation so that personal issues, blind spots, and cultural prejudices are brought to awareness and worked through so that they no longer contribute to denial and/or ineffectiveness in the professional's provision of care.

We also believe counselors must know the facts about addiction and abuse. For example most alcoholics have families, jobs, and "good" homes. Only 3 to 5 percent of all alcoholics fit our stereotype of the "skid row bum" (Ackerman, 1983; Black, 1986). This pattern also applies to sexual and physical abusers who tend to cut across all socio-economic categories with the only common factor being that they were themselves frequently the former victims of child abuse (Bradshaw, 1988).

Finally, we believe there is an implicit if not explicitly stated belief in counselor training programs and among counselors at large that individual in-depth counseling is not appropriate for the active alcoholic or drug abuser. Many programs and professionals put forth the idea that counselors should refer active alcoholics and drug abusers to AA (Alcoholics Anonymous) or NA (Narcotics Anonymous) programs or A&D (alcohol and drug) specialty centers instead of individual in-depth therapy. AA and NA programs have often supported this notion, denigrating counselors outside the A+D or AA structure for being overly susceptible to manipulation by these clients. The same has been true for the survivors as well as the perpetuators of sexual and physical abuse. The advantages of integrating the 12-step self-help programs for addiction (AA, NA, OA) with psychodynamic individual therapy is just beginning to gain acceptance; in part, we believe, due to the ACoA movement (which has struggled with treatment recommendations for chemically dependent ACoAs). We will return to this issue in the treatment section where we will address some of the basic principles of this integration.

In summary, underacknowledging, underreporting and undertraining in abuse and addiction is the result of several pervasive issues which are manifest in the larger U.S. culture and more particularly in the mental health professions. Our task is to continue to sensitize ourselves to these issues and confront our fears with knowledge and understanding. Part of this task is the examination of what specifically would be helpful for counselors to know about abuse and addiction counseling. The remainder of this paper will be devoted to outlining training areas (global concepts, definitions/etiology, developmental issues, and treatments) in abuse and addiction, including the presentation of various theories and treatments which the current authors have found particularly useful in their work with these clients.

Abuse and addiction are interwoven into all aspects of our lives and counselors must recognize their pervasiveness. In the workplace employers have become increasingly concerned about the on-the-job use of chemicals, while U.S. courts weigh the legality of mandatory drug testing (Tussim, 1987). Law enforcement agencies are stretched to their limit attempting to apprehend illegal drug traffickers and our criminal justice system strains to prosecute and incarcerate those convicted of drug related offenses. Recent figures show that 68% of criminal offenses are drug related and 40-50% of those offenders in prison are moderate to severe drug abusers (National Institute of Drug Abuse, 1989). The newsprint and electronic media report story after story of abuse and addiction in every socio-economic, racial and ethnic strata of our society (Bradshaw, 1988) while our educational institutions design programs to teach youngsters the dangers of chemical use and instill in them the knowledge that no adult has the right to sexually or physically abuse them (Bass & Davis, 1988).

At the same time, we are witnessing a proliferation of books and articles on abuse, addiction and the dysfunctional family (i.e., Bradshaw, 1988; Carnes, 1983; Schaef, 1985, 1986, 1987; Woititz, 1985). A prominent theme pervading this literature is the idea that addiction is self-destructive but also adaptive in a society that offers little permission to feel. As Schaef (1985, 1986, 1987) points out, our society extolls the rational and scientific while devaluing feeling states, a situation which fosters addictions as a means to manage unwanted feelings. Addictions thus become coping strategies that allow adaptation to a non-feeling environment. Abuse can similarly be factored into this equation as it is often followed by the development of an addiction, the addiction becoming a feeling management strategy for the unwanted emotional memories of the prior physical, sexual or emotional abuse (Bass & Davis, 1988).

Chernin (1985) in her book on eating disorders offers further support for the idea that addictions have become adaptive, stating that "at the heart of a disordered relation to food there is a disorder in memory, a severe inner distance from those recollections that would require us to feel" (p.155). Bass and Davis (1988) in their survival manual for female victims of childhood sexual abuse conceptualize anorexia and bulimia as a woman's attempt to take control of her own body, a reaction to the feelings of violation related to her earlier abuse. Schaef (1987) in her latest book, When Society Becomes An Addict, concludes that the problem with addictions is societal and at this point in time self perpetuating. We live in an addicted society, she writes, one that has "all the characteristics and exhibits all the processes of the individual alcoholic or addict" (p.4). By means of complex intrapsychic processes addictions thus manage feeling states and assist individuals to cope in a society that allows few outlets for the natural expression of feelings.

Ornstein and Sobel (1987) tell us that psychology for too long has held the notion that the supreme achievement of the human brain is rational thought while what is needed instead is validation of the connectedness of the mind and body. Valuing the mind/body connection would highlight the importance of psychological states (i.e. emotions) as vital to healthy human functioning. Such connectedness (of mind and body and right and left brain functions) would alleviate the secondary gain of psychic numbing which characterizes the development of addictions. It is thus our premise that healing on an individual, family, and societal level could be fostered in the U.S. by elevating the importance of feeling and intuition in our lives.

In addition to working for changes at a societal level that will alter our psychological need for mood altering addictions, training programs and counselors in practice need to address a number of other difficult issues. For example, we need to wrestle with the difficult task of defining the various addictions and forms of abuse, because definitions are "partly decisions, prescriptive as well as descriptive" (Levin, 1987, p. 42). The enormity of this task is particularly clear in the field of alcoholism where different proponents variously argue "whether alcoholism is a form of moral turpitude, a bad habit, or a disease" (p.41) and even the literature which adheres to the currently most popular conceptualization of alcoholism as a disease remains inconclusive as to whether or not it is a genetic or a metabolic affliction or an emotional disorder (Jellinck, 1946, 1952, 1980; Levin, 1987). In the field of abuse we have a similar phenomenon whereby what constitutes abuse remains unclear. For example the overall term "child abuse" has been used to describe everything from physical neglect to mental cruelty (Emery, 1989).

Fortunately in terms of addiction we can attempt to define it descriptively even if the etiology remains unclear. In this regard experts can generally agree on the most severe forms of addiction, but there remains much debate over categorizing lesser symptomatology (Levin, 1987; Nace, 1988). However, insofar as any chronic and compulsive (out of control) dysfunctional, self-destructive pattern of behavior is a disease, then all the addictions (alcoholism, drug abuse, gambling, shopping, eating, relationship, sexual) qualify. "For an organism to destroy itself (in any area of life - health, financial, social) is pathological regardless of the source of this pathology" (Levin, 1987, p. 43).

While there are different levels of severity of these "diseases," in all categories of addiction the compulsively ingested or acted out behavior is doing serious harm to the mental, emotional, physical, social, and/or economic well-being of the individual. In the treatment of chemical abuse, we thus believe temporary, if not life-long abstinence, must be the goal. At minimum we strongly recommend abstinence for problem substance abusers throughout the course of their therapy for the following reasons: 1) using serves as a poor substitute for internalized ego functions (i.e., self-soothing, self-esteem or energizing ambitions) that the client needs to learn or develop more fully without artificial inducement; 2) using or self-medicating can mask anxiety or induce or maintain depression; and 3) these clients may look like they are responding to the therapy only to end up back on square one if they keep using. In the long run their "solution" only exaserbates their problems by becoming another problem in and of itself.

We believe using defeats therapy and therefore defeats healthy strivings and substitutes the artificial and self-destructive for the real solution which involves facing and addressing feelings, conflicts, problems, and successes without the mood-altering effects of self-medications. The real solution involves learning to live without using. It is important to note that most of the literature sees alcoholism (and drug abuse) as a primary disorder (as opposed to a symptom of a personality disorder) and recommends that the first 3-12 months of treatment be devoted exclusively to recovery (issues centered around abstinence and the bolstering of certain reaction-formed defenses). With other addictions (i.e. eating, sexual) the treatment goal is not abstinence but regulation.

"The recognition that alcoholism and the various forms of drug abuse/dependence are commonly observed in the same patient has fostered the concept of *addiction as a generic process*. That is, an addiction, regardless of the substance involved, presents with similar symptoms, pathological defenses and personality dynamics" (Nace, 1988 p. 234). Three treatment implications have thus been derived from the concept of addiction as a generic process: 1) the same basic treatment program which focuses on the phenomenon of substance abuse can help with all addictions (Nace, 1988; Carroll & Schroll, 1982); 2) successful recovery depends on the elimination of "using" all mind-altering drugs (Kaufman, 1982); and 3) the mental health professional needs to be alert to the possibility of multiple withdrawal syndromes.

The current authors believe that the psychological aspects of abuse are similar to addiction and that both are typically related to a *wounded self* and the *internalization of shame*. For this reason the concept of a generic process may apply to all addictions and to all forms of chronic abuse as well as applying to ACoA's and other Adult Children of Dysfunctional Families. In very general terms both addiction and abuse indicate loss of control behaviors reflecting deficits in self-regulatory functions such as self-soothing, self-esteem, and tolerance of affect, as well as the internal regulation of frustration, anxiety, and psychological boundaries. In addition to the regulation of soothing functions, addiction and abuse can reflect deficits in realistic ambitions, goal directedness, and liveable ideals (Levin, 1987). These deficits have also been linked to internalized toxic shame (Bradshaw, 1988) which concomitantly includes self-alienation, isolation, low grade chronic depression, false self development, co-dependency, and difficulties with self-assertion, individuation, and self-esteem.

As Levin (1987) notes, if a relatively healthy personality becomes addicted he/she will regress to pathological narcissism and as the addiction progresses he/she will evidence more and more of the self-debilitations discussed above. For most addicts and abusers, however, self-deficits and the dynamics of a shame-based identity propel the addictive behavior. Bradshaw (1988) explains addictions as attempts to alter feelings of hurt and loneliness that lie "in the underbelly of shame" (p.15) by having a love affair with compulsive activity (i.e., work, buying) or ingestive substances (i.e., alcohol, drugs). These attempts, however, only fuel more shame as the addict devalues his/her own behavior or its life damaging consequences (i.e., hangover, no money), thus solidifying a self-image as worthless and defective.

Abuse, on the other hand, can be conceptualized in terms of identification with the aggressor (i.e., most offenders were abused themselves as children) and internalized shame. Bradshaw (1988) describes these conceptualizations of abuse, noting that the more a child is beaten or otherwise humiliated/violated, the more a child feels shamed and thus defective and flawed. Such violations destroy boundaries and leave the child feeling no protection. This is a very painful state that can be internalized as learned helplessness or perpetual victim status. Once internalized the shame state becomes functionally autonomous and operates through memory signals so that even as an adult the person can feel like a helpless and bad child. In order to escape this painful state the child may identify with the shaming oppressor(s) in order to experience their power and then as an adult this individual can feel unconsciously compelled to reenact the abuse either against themselves or against others (i.e., their spouses, their own children) in order to provide mastery, mobilization, or empowerment opportunities. Therapists who choose to treat individuals with addiction and/or abuse histories thus need to be aware that they will be dealing with self-deficit and shame issues. With this in mind a treatment plan can be developed that is designed to heal these wounds.

The first real step towards overcoming all addictions and abuse usually takes place when the person realizes that he/she is powerless to control his/her compulsion and needs help. Because of the intense shame and humiliation associated with these disorders and feeling out of control, the addict or abuser must usually reach some kind of bottom; that is, some particularly degrading or frightening experience that makes getting help more important than experiencing shame. This window of opportunity for accepting help is often ephemeral and the mental health professional should be alerted to the need to move fast, connecting the client with a detoxification program or self-help group as quickly as possible (Nace, 1988). Having connections to these programs in place ahead of time can make the difference as to whether or not such a treatment strategy will be successful (Levin, 1987).

There are a number of treatment options available. The uniquenesses of the client and his/her tolerances can guide the professional in designing a specialized treatment program tailored to the client's particular needs and situation (i.e., the amount of deterioration or deficit the client suffers). In general, the less deteriorated the client, the more that insight oriented/in-depth therapy can be helpful and "rarely will individual or group therapy alone suffice in the treatment of alcoholism or addictions" (Levin, 1987, p. 274). This is probably also true for abuse. It is our opinion that individual therapy, when appropriate, usually must be coupled with other interventions in order to be effective. These interventions can include self-help groups, detoxification programs, family therapy and experiential therapist-led groups.

The priority goals of all counseling alternatives for addiction and abuse include identification with the counselor's (professional or peer) sobriety (clear thinking, empathic understanding, detached involvement, ability to be intimate, tolerance of strong affect and honesty); a nonabusive style of handling conflict (respectful to self and others' boundaries and needs; compassionate understanding but firm resolve to enforce needed limits so nonretalitory and nonmasochistic)(Levin, 1987); and a constructive way of getting dependency needs met. Identifications with the counselor's hope, tolerance for human frailty, desire to understand and not judge, compassionate acceptance, and respectful, yet honest and direct approaches to conflict are vital to the healthy rebuilding of structural deficits in the abuser's ego (Levin, 1987). This process occurs through transmuting internalizations (Kohut, 1971)—that is, slowly, incrementally, and concomitantly with many small frustrations in the course of the relationship. In this process of building psychic structure (Kohut, 1971) the client comes to possess capacities for internal regulation that were lacking at the beginning of the therapeutic process.

All addictions and abuse are essentially treated in a similar manner in this system and involve diagnosing and confronting the addiction or abuse and educating the client as to the effects of chronic abuse and addiction. The active addiction/abuse must be halted, with the help of detoxification programs or outpatient medical consultation depending upon what is needed. Detox/inpatient programs are often helpful with: a) intensive education, b) external controls,and c) providing a safe and supportive environment for these clients to get in touch with the intense feelings they have been repressing or "self-medicating" (Levin, 1987).

Treatment in this system also includes providing/building a support system for the recovering addict/abuser either through participation in a theme-centered, self-help group, an appropriate 12-step group, an experiential therapist-led group and/or family therapy. Every addict/abuser as well as their adult children need a self-constructed "family-type" support system to lessen feelings of isolation and obtain validation/affirmation from peers.

Only after the establishment of these safe and supportive relationships can the slow work of remediating the self and grieving losses begin through psychodynamic psychotherapy. For this reason it is very important that individual counselors help their abuse- and addiction-damaged clients to find an appropriate self-help group (i.e., AA, NA, OA, Alanon, ACoA, Incest Survivors). These groups -- usually based on the AA 12-step program -- "can be understood as a resocialization experience, an education experience ... a constructive way of meeting dependency needs or a situation that induces an idealized transference to an ideal object (the program or one's Higher Power) which allows repair of structural deficits in the self" (Levin, 1987, p. 284). One of the problems with these programs, however, is that they often do not allow for the natural ambivalences that attend all enduring relationships. The program is presented as an "ideal object which must never be criticized ... but anger is unavoidable and unexpressed it will either be internalized or acted out" (Levin, 1987, p. 284). Counselors who work with addiction-damaged clients need to be aware of when and how to intervene to best help these clients given their stage of recovery. In the beginning, starting a recovery program and working on living life without using takes priority. Supporting selective defenses such as reaction formation and denial is often appropriate so that the client does not become overwhelmed or too anxious and therefore returns to using (Levin, 1987; Nace, 1988). Once recovery is well underway (3 months - 1 year), the motivational and structural issues underlying the addiction/abuse can be investigated along with grieving/mourning issues and any natural ambivalences and negative transferences.

In conclusion, for most, if not all sufferers of addiction and abuse counseling focuses upon learning to live without using or abuse; learning to become one's own good parent (Wholey, 1988). Often this includes reclaiming disowned parts of the self and integrating good and bad aspects of self, others, and life to be able to feel more solid, whole, and resilient with more resources and options available to comfort oneself and handle life stresses.

DISABLED PERSONS, TECHNOLOGY, AND COMPUTERS IN THE TWENTY FIRST CENTURY

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Computers have revolutionized the lives of many disabled persons and will continue to make new gains in enhancing the quality of life for people with disabilities. Computers control robots. Robots, which currently evoke images of Star Wars, will become a relatively commonplace option for accomplishing otherwise impossible tasks. In a short time it has become evident that computers make an enormous difference in access to education, employment, independent living and recreation by impacting on communication, control of the environment and mobility. The disability rights movement has made accessibility of all types its major priority. Technology, which can vastly increase access to the environment and to communication, is the next frontier. Radical changes have occurred--legislation has been passed which will put technology into the hands of the disabled consumers who need it. I will discuss recent legislation and government initiatives concerning access to technology. I will describe some types of computer and robotics applications, as applied to specific functional disabilities, which are a part of the technology revolution. Finally the relevance for counselors will be addressed.

LEGISLATION AND FEDERAL INITIATIVES

In 1984 the National Institute on Disability and Rehabilitation Research of the Department of Education (ED) established a Government-Industry Task Force to identify ways of designing computers to make them usable by a larger portion of the the population. Also, in 1984, the General Services Administration (GSA) established the interagency Committee for Computer Support of Handicapped Employees and the Clearinghouse on Computer Accommodations. The purpose was to advance the management and use of information technology in order to promote the productivity and achievement of Federal employees with disabilities."(Gray, Le Clair, & Traub, 1987)

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In 1986 Section 508 of the Amendments to the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 Congress mandated that electronic data processing and general electronic office equipment obtained through government procurement (lease or purchase) after September 1988 be usable by end users with disabilities with or without special peripherals. While only computers and electronic equipment purchased by the federal government must comply, the federal government is the largest purchaser of microcomputers and the entire industry is affected. Section 508 indicates federal recognition of the role of computers in the workplace and the importance of access to them. This has been described as comparable to the federal impetus provided by the Architectural Barriers Act of 1968. (Brill, 1989)

Congress has also enacted the "Technology-Related Assistance for Individuals With Disabilities Act of 1988". There are two titles in this Act: Title I assists states to develop and implement consumer-responsive statewide programs for individuals to aquire information about and obtain assistive technology devices and services. Title II is concerned with programs of national significance including: a study of funding of assistive technology devices and services; establishment of a National Information and Program Referral Network; establishing technology training and public awareness projects; and establishing demonstration and innovation projects (Kersten,1988.) Title I activities have begun and Title II activities are anticipated to begin soon.

The new Americans With Disabilities Act currently before Congress extends the expectation of reasonable accommodation to employers of 25 or more and phases down to employers of 15 or more. Computers are increasingly a part of reasonable accommodation. The new legislation greatly extends the utilization of technology.

Technology impacts upon work by increasing access to communication and control of the environment.

COMMUNICATION

Augmentative communication is used for conversation when speech is impaired, for use with the telephone utilizing voice synthesis, and as an alternative to writing. Communication via computers and telecommunication utilizing a modem and a telephone have a variety of benefits . Advantages of telecommunications include access to information without leaving home, being able to interact with others without the visibility of the disability entering into the situation, and getting information in usable form, e.g. text or braille. Computers can aid communication in many ways.

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Communication can be a problem for people who are blind, deaf, orthopedically disabled, brain injured, cognitively impaired or non-speaking. Activities of getting information into the computer and out of it are closely connected with the nature of the disability.

NON-SPEAKING SPEECH AND LANGUAGE IMPAIRED PERSONS

A non-speaking person may have lost the ability to speak due to a laryngectomy or may have muscle or motor problems which impair the ability to speak. Examples include cerebral palsy, head injury, muscle disease and muscle weakness or stroke. While simple aids may be sufficient, often they are very limiting. Persons with stroke or head injury caused aphasia may be able to select pictures and sounds but may be unable to retrieve appropriate words. The ability to type messages into a computer or to scan and select words from a stored vocabulary in a computer which has a voice output and/or visual display can be liberating.

LOW VISION AND BLIND PERSONS

Persons with low vision often have difficulty seeing a computer keyboard, monitor, and printed page. Low tech aids such as magnification, colored filters and other optical aids may be sufficient. High tech hardware and software adaptations may be needed for some persons with low vision and are usually needed for blind persons. Now, a blind person may need to have written material scanned and converted to speech using a speech synthesizer or converted into Braille. Optical character recognition is used for producing Braille, speech and other tactile output. An example is the Optacon which scans an image with a hand held camera and converts the image into an enlarged vibrating tactile form to be felt with a finger. Electronic reading machines need further development and can be very costly, but are available options. A Braille display and keyboard are alternatives to standard monitors and keyboards. Talking typewriters with speech synthesized outputs can enable blind persons to check on their work.

DEAF PERSONS

Deaf persons use many assistive listening devices which are not computer based. These include hearing aids, other amplification devices, systems for enhancing hearing in small and large areas by directly linking the speaker and the deaf person (hardwired, infrared, induction loops, and AM or FM systems) and a variety of visual and tactile alerting devices. Telecommunication devices are especially important to deaf persons. The deaf person types in his or her message and can receive messages printed on a screen and/or paper. A visual telephone for the deaf in which sign language is transmitted through the use of cartoon pictures is under development.

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There is current research utilizing computers to display speech sounds on either a visual or tactile display. A computerized hand has been developed which enables a person who does not know fingerspelling to type in a message that is converted to fingerspelling and then can be "read" by a deaf-blind person by feeling it. A related invention is a computerized glove which enables a signing person's communication to be read by a computer for translation into print or voice so that it can be understood by a person who does not know sign language. These are still in the prototype stage and not ready for distribution.

PHYSICALLY DISABLED PERSONS

Physically disabled persons often have difficulty in producing written materials, in controlling their environment, and sometimes in speaking. Often specialized input and control devices are needed to enable them to use communication and environmental control devices.

Key guards and special attachments are available for standard keyboards which allow people to brace their hands and poke fingers through holes to type. Expanded, miniature and special layout keyboards are available when non-standard keyboards cannot be used. Special switches which can perceive pressure and movement from different parts of the body to activate or input into the computer are available. These include switches which respond to movements of the head, eyebrows, sipping and puffing and tongue movements. A light pointer can be mounted on a headpiece or another part of the body to point a light beam at a special sensor panel to choose computer keys. Beam switches operate by moving a part of the body into a beam of light, sound, or radio waves. This can only be used by those persons who can hold their heads still. There are eye gaze controls under development which involve looking at the keys and blinking.

ENVIRONMENTAL CONTROL SYSTEMS

Electronic communication devices, computer input devices and environmental control systems have made it possible for persons with severe disabilities to function more independently in their homes, at school and in the community. Environmental control systems use an electronic scanner and one or more switches to operate electric appliances such as a call signal, intercom, radio, t.v. electric bed, door lock release, powered drapery, closed circuit security system, page turner, and video equipment (Dickey, Shealey, 1987).

Robotics and voice recognition are important current areas of work and interest. Robotic systems are expected to aid rehabilitation in many ways. They can be "used to manipulate larger and heavier objects than an individual could handle with orthotic or body-actuated manipulation aids. And they can accommodate characteristics of the environment, supplementing the commands of the user."(Leung,1989, NIDRR Rehab Brief.) Speech controlled work stations have been developed in which filing and other tasks such as picking up books and inserting diskettes are controlled by voice commands. This can enable a severely disabled quadriplegic person to independently return to work much sooner after treatment in such fields as" accounting, law, CAD design and engineering, editing and and desktop publishing, telemarketing, customer service, reservations and order entry, dispatching and many other home or office based businesses".(Leung, 1989.1989).

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS
As we approach the 21st century it is widely recognized that manufacturing is no longer where most jobs will lie. Service and information processing jobs are assuming increasing importance. Access to electronic database information is equally available to disabled and non-disabled persons. Many more severely disabled students have grown up with technology and been able to successfully complete their educations. These students will expect access to postsecondary education and workplaces. Whereas it was previously assumed that many disabled people would not be able to work independently, this assumption is no longer warranted. In an age when computers and other technology can significantly or entirely eliminate the barriers to communication, to control of the environment and to information, we must reevaluate our assumptions. The federal government has passed legislation which is the equivalent of "electronic curb cuts" (Brill, 1989.) It is part of our professional responsibility as counselors to be aware of such important current and future developments. At San Francisco State University we are training specialist counselors, engineers, and technologists in a federally funded rehabilitation technology training project. Assessment, selection, development and training for usage are complicated tasks. Knowledge in areas other than computers, such as seating and positioning, is often necessary. Knowing how to assess the consumer's needs and wishes are an essential part of the training.

In addition to training specialists in rehabilitation technology, we are exposing all of our rehabilitation counseling students to an introductory knowledge of the new technology age that is upon us. The changes in technology and the right to access to technoloy are here to stay.

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COMPUTER ADVANCES

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The major advances in computer technology and applications for the 1990's are predicted to be (1) advances in telecommunications, (2) more computing power in terms of both speed and applications for personal computers (3) larger memory capacity for personal computers, (4) the possibility of optical processing and parallel processing in hardware design, and (5) increased standardization of software and more intuitive software with visual interfaces and voice interaction. All of these predicted developments will increase the usefulness of the personal computer to counselor educators.

Advances In Telecommunications

Stewart Brand in his book *The Media Lab* predicts that advances in telecommunications like ethernets will allow us to access more information, use more different types of hardware, and access a wider variety of software from our personal computers. More sophisticated interfaces will allow us to access other kinds of software and hardware than our particular brand of personal computer or operating system.

More Computing Power

Advances in hardware and software design will increase computing speed from today's norm of 20 million cycles per second (MHz) for 386-based computers to a predicted 60 MHz.

The trend towards larger memory can be illustrated by the Apple II series of computers which started out with a mere 32K of RAM in the Apple II+, increased to 64K in the Apple IIE, doubled to 128K in the later Apple IIEs, jumped to 512K in the new Apple IIGS models, and recently more than doubled again to 1.125 megabytes of RAM in the latest IIGS (*InCider*, October 1989, p. 16).

The RAM memory of personal computers will increase to 10 or 20 megabytes. The ROM memory is predicted to increase to 1000 megabytes with the use of optical disks and WORM disks. IBM's latest PS/2 portable computer, Model P70, comes with a 60MB hard disk or a 120 MB hard disk. The popular Compaq Portable 386 comes with a 40MB hard disk, 1 MB RAM, and a 1.2 MB 5.25 floppy disk drive, (described in *Personal Computing*, August 1989, p. 25).

ADVANCES IN COMPUTERS

Such technical innovations as parallel processing, artifical intelligence, and the use of fiber optics for transmission may revolutionize computer design. Intel Corporation recently announced an ultra-fast microprocessor chip (the Intel 1960CA chip) that is the fastest 32-bit processor yet. It is capable of carrying out up to 66 million instructions per second. It is the first "superscalar" microprocessor that can perform more than one instruction for each turn of its internal clock. For comparison, the Intel 80386 microprocessor used in high-end IBM compatible personal computers, requires four or five clock cycles to carry out each instruction. The fastest microprocessors to date which use a technique called reduced instruction set computing (RISC) require 1.25 cycles per instruction. The Intel 1960CA by contrast, is expected to carry out two instructions for each cycle.

A related technological development was recently announced by IBM. The demonstrated two experimental chips that can transmit data over fiberoptic lines at a billion bits per second. By comparison, the advanced National Science Foundation computer network is considered a computational superhighway, though it handles just 44 million bits per second. One of the experimental IBM chips holds 50 times more optical and electronic components than were ever previously assembled on a chip. The possible advantage of fiber optic transmission of data is that it will not only grealty speed links between computer systems, but may also carry out the inner workings of computers themselves.

Easier To Use Software

It is predicted that software will become more standardized so that it can be used on a wider variety of hardware. It is also likely to become more intuitive, that is, easier to use because of the use of Macintosh-like visual symbols and voice commands. There will be more applications in a wider variety of fields. In the field of guidance and counseling there will be more interactive software like the present SIGI-Plus that will be used for training and instruction.

A recent video tape produced by Apple Corporation called "Project 2000" illustrates voice interaction with computers to present classroom lessons, search literature data bases, teach adults how to read, and help engineers design new engines. In one segment of "Project 2000" a professor is seen talking with a librarian who appears on his monitor and helps him find relevant litrature for a paper.

Another example of voice-interaction with software is The Voice Explorer from Advanced Products and Technology (Personal Computing, August 1989, p. 32). Measuring only 8.25 by 7 by 2.75 inches and weighing 3 pounds, the Voice Explorer enables you to link with your desk-top system for voice-command operation of software. The first Voice-Drive software is an English-to-Spanish translator which converts words, phrases, or sentences in the 35,000-word dictionary from English to Spanish. Future software planned are English to French and English to Japanese translators and a business scheduler.

A recent hardware advance which will increase the standardization of software is the new super-drive 3.5 inch disk drive for the MacIntosh computer which will read Apple II and IBM disk files in addition to Macintosh files.

An example of the increased standardization of software is the new IBM PS/OS/2 operating system. It imitates the Macintosh graphic interface with visual icons representing menu choices and includes a mouse to use with the icons.

Another example of the increased standardization of software is the new Macintosh System 7.0 software (Personal Computing, August 1989, p. 26). It includes many of IBM's OS/2 system software features such as program data exchange, multitasking, and direct access to RAM. Other features of the new Macintosh System 7.0 system software include electronic mail capabilities, an interprocess communications protocol for sharing data among applications or on a network, and a virtual memory system that enables users to turn RAM on a hard disk into system memory.

HyperCard for the Macintosh and HyperStudio for the Apple IIGS are examples of intuitive software. Both programs integrate everything you can do with your personal computer--working with text, graphics, sound, and even video with integrated commands and graphical interfaces. The user rather than the program determines the sequence in which events will occur (InCider Magazine, September 1989, p. 44). Hypermedia software allows anyone to create audiovisual "databases" which are infinitely varied and infinitely detailed presentations on ay subject. Hyperstudio is described as an "interactive authoring system" that helps you incorporte text, graphics, sound, music, vidio, and digitizations into your applictions.

Implications for Counselor Education

With the use of hypermedia software is is possible to design instructional software that could be useful in counselor education. It would be possible to use laser discs to store visual images and video-tapes of counseling interviews that could be used in training. Interactive video programs could branch the user to different videotape sequences depending upon the trainee's responses to a stimulus segment. The trainee could learn which responses are most effective from the immediate feedback the interactive instructional program would provide. Beginning counseling students could spend time learning basic interviewing skills by using such interactive video training programs. The same type of instructional software could be used to train counseling students in cross-cultural communication skills. Video-tapes could be made of typical problems experienced by different cultural groups and also of differences in communication styles across cultural groups. STudents could experience a wider range of cross-cultural interactions than would be possible from a limited number of course or internship experiences.

In summary, the predicted advances in computing power, hardware design, accessability of information, and user-friendliness of software make the next decade a very exciting one in which to work.

Structural Cognitive Modifiability: A New Cognitive Perspective for Counseling and Psychotherapy

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Running Head: Cognitive Modifiability

Abstract

The theory and constructs of structural cognitive modifiability are presented in the context of counseling and psychotheraputic functioning to suggest a new perspective for integrating cognitive theory and the cognitive/behavior approaches. It is suggested that having such a structured and operationalized system of focus can assist counselors and psychotherapists in both conceptualizing their approach more clearly and planning specific interventions. It is also suggested that such an approach fosters an integration of educational and psychotherapeutic frameworks.

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The theory of structural cognitive modifiability was developed by Feuerstein (1980) to describe the nature of cognitive processes and their relationship to differential learning ability. There is great interest in education and psychology in thinking skills and processes related to learning and behavioral change. The last decade has seen growing interest in the fields of counseling and psychotherapy in approaches which have at their core what has been called a "cognitive" focus, some examples being the direct and brief therapies (Fisch, Weakland and Segal, 1982), the cognitive-behavioral therapies (Meichenbaum, 1985; Beck, 1976), and the strategic approaches (Haley, 1976; Madanes, 1981).

We propose that the structural cognitive modiafiability (SCM) concept and its corrolary propositions can serve to strengthen the linkage between the cognitive aspects of behavioral change and change strategies, and make explicit the relationship (and mechanisms) between cognitive change potential and behavioral change outcomes.

The SCM constructs themselves, and two applied systems which have been developed from the theory--the Learning Potential Assessment Device (LPAD) (Feuerstein, 1979) for the assessment of cognitive functioning and potential and Instrumental Enrichment (IE) (Feuerstein, 1980), a systematic program for enhancing cognitive processes and teaching thinking), implicitly and explicitly address the nature of the learning change process. These approachs identify and intervene upon what happens within the cognitive process to stimulate behavioral change. Both systems have been subjected to extensive critical evaluation and experimental testing, with numerous outcome studies generally supporting the value of the approaches and the diagnostic and interventional value of the theory (see Lidz, 1987; Savell, Twohig, Rachford, 1986).

The theory of SCM thus offers a new perspective on the consideration of the "dynamics" of behavioral change within the context of cognitive process. We believe that the concepts and processes from this approach can be used productively to guide the counselors thinking about behavior and therapeutic change in a generic sense, and can aid in the development of behavior change strategies which will be more firmly grounded in both theory and practice.

The Theory of Structural Cognitive Modifiability

Feuerstein (1980), in considering the nature of person and the process of development, has identified one of the essential aspects as plasticity and potential. The human organism is seen as being able to change and as ready to respond to conditions which stimulate or facilitate change. The necessity and capacity for human adaptation thus becomes a primary resource for the change process. This has two major behavioral implications: first, that motivation is embedded in cognition (simply put, how we think effects how we feel): and second, that specific experiences which effect the individual at the cognitive level will predictabily and systematically effect at the motivational or intrapsychic level.

Specifically, SCM describes how learning and change occur when the individual is actively stimulated to discover the "why" of one's experience, to find meaning as one represents oneself in the world, as one sets goals, and assesses one's needs. This occurs very early in development, and can be considered one of the vital aspects of early interactional contacts (which we shall later describe as mediation). Out of this early experience develops a whole range behaviorally-sensitive phenomena such as self-concept, attitudes toward learning and socialization experiences.

SCM emphasizes the importance of an active and optimistic involvement in the early learning experience of the individual, and identifies the essential integration of emotional (or affective) aspects of learning with the more readily identifiable cognitive aspects. When this integration is not experienced, what often occurs is what Feuerstein (1970) has called the "passive-acceptant approach" to human behavior. This can be seen in traditional considerations of etiology and their effect on behavior change expectations, and the typical intervention programs which are developed to meet needs, as for example in areas of mental retardation, physical disability, severe emotional disturbances, substance abuse, to name but a few. These programs can be seen to have as a common characteristic what Feuerstein has called "a pessimistic approach toward reversal and certainly toward the prevention of retarded performance (1970, p. 343)." Some (such as Haley, 1976; 1980) have questioned to what extent approaches to counseling and psychotherapy are organized (directly or indirectly) in accordance with this assumption.

The alternative position which flows directly from the theory of SCM is to adopt what has been called an "active-modificational approach" (Feuerstein, 1970), which argues that the counselor or therapist see the human organism as an open system, and therefore becomes willing and needing to invest "in the creation of daring, innovatory strategies (through which) retarded performance levels can be raised considerably (Feuerstein, 1970, p. 345)."

When modifiability takes place, what is changed are cognitive schemata--the patterns of organization of processes and concepts which guide behavior, as well as whatever specific skills which are included in the "content" of the interaction. For change to be lasting, and significant these new organizations need to be created, which will serve as the "mortar" to hold the new behaviors in place. More specifically, what is acquired are new processes and strategies which serve to guide responding, link to personal meaning, create satisfying associations, and stimulate further reaching out to connect to yet more new experiences.

Active Modification Approaches

The kinds of cognitive processes described above can occur as part of natural development. There are, however, a range of conditions and circumstances which may interfere with a given individual's development. These have been described by Feuerstein and Rand (1975) as the distal conditions of cognitive dysfunction. That is, conditions which explain some degree of an individual's failure to learn or develop (e.g. neurologicial dysfunction, poverty, emotional disturbance) but do not in themselves explain the individual's lack of development. They must be understood and planned for, to be sure, but they can (with the appropriate conceptual readiness and technological committment) be circumvented.

What is required is a clearly planned, systematically implemented intervention. The LPAD and IE programs were developed according to this approach to deal with cognitive changes in the area of learning and thinking skills. They have within them the structure and processes which can, with little adaptation, be extended to behavioral change objectives in a broader, more generic context.

For example, Feuerstein and Hoffman (1976) described the following goals of the IE Program:

> 1. To correct the cognitive functions that are deficient as a result of the lack of mediated learning experience, which (are) the basis for inadequate cognitive functions.
> 2. To teach the vocabulary, concepts, operations and relationships necessary for the mastery of the tasks, and for problem solving generally.
> 3. To produce intrinsic motivation through the formation of habits, or internal need systems.
> 4. To increase task-intrinsic motivation.
> 5. To encourage reflective thinking and to develop insight into the reasons for success or failure, and into the applicability (of the strategies, principles, etc.) to academic, vocational, and experimental areas.
> 6. To arouse the students from their cognitive passivity by making them more aware that they are capable of generating and extrapolating information, and giving them the opportunity to do so (Feuerstein and Hoffman, 1976, pp. 1-2).

Each of these goals relates affective variables to cognitive processes. As the cognitive and affective needs of the individual are being mediated, an active and dynamic interaction takes place. The achievement of these goals occurs through a structured intervention involving both the "content" of the program and the "process" of the relationship between the helper (teacher/therapist/counselor/parent) and the helpee (student/client). Specifically, as need systems are aroused, as task-intrinsic motivation is stimulated, and as awareness of self responsibility is generated there will result a broad range of changes, all of which relate directly to self enhancement, an altered sense of capacity, new levels of activity, and the like.

Mediated Learning Experience

The interactive mechanism for achieving these changes has been described as mediation, wherein another human being (a parent, teacher, therapist, peer) intervenes between the stimulus, the organism, and the response to interpret, elaborate, and/orreinforce the learner's experience. This is in contrast to direct learning experience where there is no such intervention. Both direct and mediated learning experiences are a necessary part of the human individual's development. Mediated learning experience occurs as a natural and spontaneous part of the individual's being in a nurturing, caring, and responsive environment. There are, however, many individuals who lack sufficient mediated learning experience, for a variety of reasons (see Feuerstein and Rand's [1975] discussion of proximal and distal factors in acquiring learning experience).

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The criteria for mediation were initially described by Feuerstein (1980) and are constantly being modified and adapted as both experience with SCM and various programmatic implementations occur. At the present time there are eleven elements to be considered in planning a mediated learning experience:

1. Mediation for intentionality and reciprocity
2. Mediation for transcendence
3. Mediation for meaning
4. Mediation for a feeling of competence
5. Mediation for the regulation and control of behavior
6. Mediated sharing behavior
7. Mediated individuation and psychological differentiation
8. Mediation of goal seeking, setting, planning, and achieving behavior
9. Mediation of challenge; the search for novelty and complexity
10. Mediation of an awareness of the human as a changing entity
11. Mediation of an optimistic approach

The first three (intentionality/reciprocity, transcendence, and meaning) are essential to all mediational encounters, and serve to focus on the individual's sense of purpose and being in an interaction. The remaining eight are "situational" in that they are conditioned on circumstance, the nature of the activity, and the like. From a behavioral or psychological perspective each of these criterial elements can be planned for, explicitly built into structured interventions, and used to stimulate further change. As such, they can--when fully understood by the therapist--serve to guide a wide range of psychotherapeutic interventions.

In a recent book, Feuerstein, Rand, and Rynders (1989) have described how the mediational objectives are translated into active, behavioral change interventions. From a counseling practice perspective, the criteria of intentionality, transcendence, and meaning are related to the development of the central, structural expectations for the relationship--what the client can expect to occur, how it is related to immediate needs and futuredirections,and the personal investment which needs to be created. Competence, regulation and control, and sharing relate to the more active, movement oriented dimensions of the therapeutic process. Goal seeking, challenge, and optimistic change dimensions speak to the planned for and perceived outcome aspects of the process, the part of the work which translates to new experience, mastery of inner and outer issues for the client, and the like.

The Cognitive Map

Another conceptual element of SCM which has direct implications for counseling and psychotherapy is that of the cognitive map. The cognitive map is a description of the qualities of the learning experience which need to be understood in order to adapt or adjust the intervention. The cognitive map refers to how experience is likely to be organized and processed. Seven parameters have been identified by Feuerstein and Hoffman,(1979): (1) the content of the experience, or what is being experienced by the individual; (2) the modality, or language of communication, usually referring to verbal, pictoral, figural or other ways of representing the experience; (3) the phase of the experience, indicating whether the individual is taking in information, associating it to already meaningful knowledge, or expressing some kind of communicational output; (4) the operations required to respond to or process experience, referring to the strategies or rules learned in organizing responses; (5) the level of complexity, including the number of units to be responded to and the novelty or familiarity of the stimuli; (6) the level of abstraction presented by the situation, which can be described as the distance between the mental act and the object or event it refers to, and (7) the level of efficiency, which reflects the amount of investment required to respond and the ease and comfort with which a response is performed.

The cognitive map helps us to identify the dimensions of the external experience of the individual, and makes possible the development of a framework to focus on external events to assist the individual to experience change. It is here where one can consider the dimensions of the client's external experience and assess which kind of interventional strategies are likely to be effective given the demands and/or essential characteristics of the experience (for example, is the client in a situation where he or she is expected to relate to abstract or complex stimuli, use verbal or symbolic communications, and the like). This may be a critically useful step in designing effective brief, structural, and strategic aproaches such as have been described by many different therapists (Haley 1984; Madanes, 1981, Weakland, et.al., 1982; Minuchin and Fishman, 1981). In a general sense, however, therapeutic interventions are most effective when they recognize and plan for a clear focus on the client's specific inner experience (content), present themselves in a "language" which is comfortable and familiar (modality), center on the client's capacity to take in, process, and respond appropriately (phase), and structure to provide experience with specific activities (involving various mental operations, levels of complexity, and abstraction) which address the blocked or dysfunctional behaviors.

The Cognitive Functions

Another conceptual formulation developed from the theory of SCM is that of the cognitive functions. They often appear in the literature as "cognitive dysfunctions" but when framed in this way are not substantively different. The cognitive functions refer to characteristics or attributes of the person (as contrasted to the cognitive map which describes the task or experience). For the counselor or psycotherapist they serve as an operational description of how the client's responsive capacity or style, at a given moment in time. As such they make possible the planning of therapeutic interventions and the channeling of experience according to anticipated and observed reactions of the client--using clients responses to guide and manage subsequent interventions.

The cognitive functions are organized according to the levels of input, or the ways in which experience is taken in (response to stimuli); elaboration, or the ways in which what is experienced is processed and integrated into existing experience (personalization and subjective experiencing); and output, or the ways in which knowledge or experience is communicated or expressed (Feuerstein and Hoffman, 1976).

The function of this construct, as with the cognitive map, is to assist the mediator (the counselor, therapist, teacher, parent) in developing a working picture of the client and in structuring an active and planned intervention to effect appropriate changes.

One very direct use of the cognitive functions is to present it (in one of its positively framed formats) to the client (and/or significant others [parents, teachers, spouses,etc.] to review of the list of functions and explore of which of the descriptions fit with their perceived experience. Many therapists and teachers have found this a useful strategy in stimulating a clearer focus on the needs of the individual, in fostering self-insight, and strengthening motivation to change.

Implications for Counseling and Psychotherapy

The psychotherapeutic relationship is--as conceptualized through the perspective of SCM-- a mediated relationship between the therapist and client. If viewed in this manner, and attention is directed to (1) the goals of the encounter, (2) the need states and aspirations of the client, (3) the client's behavioral skills and capacities, (4) and the situational variables, it is possible to significantly improve the focus on the parameters of potential for desired or achievable change. Given the many prominant approaches which explicity incorporate active and cognitive variables in the psychotherapeutic process, as for example the aforementioned strategic, structural, and brief approaches SCM offers a helpful set of constructs and operations to describe some of the underlying mechanisms and further guide direct interventions. This can be viewed as adding to the planned, organized, and well designed nature of such modifications.

A cognitive theory with the dimensions of SCM thus gives the counselor and psychotherapist a clear working picture of the process of change. This can lead to a variety of options regarding what to intervene upon, how to organize the intervention, and the planning and anticipation of outcomes.

Specifically, the criteria of *mediated learning experience* offer clear directions for organizing and guiding initial interviewing skills and planning interventions. The *cognitive map* identifies issues in the behavioral system in which the client functions, and the *cognitive functions* allow for a detailed and behaviorally specific description of client functioning, with cues for orienting interventions.

This moves the counselor beyond the simple dictum of activity and involvement with the client to promote change. If the counselor has a sense of what to act upon, and knows when and what to work on, decisions regarding individual focus, dynamics or skills to emphasize, planning for conjoint or systemic involvements, and the like can be more accurately made and adapted as conditions and circumstances change. There are numerous socio-cultural, methodological, and philosophical implications of these decisions for the counselor or psychotherapist. The debate as to the effectiveness or appropriateness of various approaches to counseling and psychotherapy has identified some of these issues, particularly at a "functional" or process level. Yet it is difficult at times to have a fully clear understanding of the underlying psychological dynamics of the changes being sought or stimulated. The theories and constructs of SCM help to make more explicit what happens at the level of cognitive process, and leads to an operational and adaptational picture of change potential and mechanisms for activition.

The concepts of SCM, as described above, provide a structural cognitive base for active interventions to change behavior. Additionally, this work opens limitless possibilities to fashion changes at a variety of levels, in numerous kinds of settings (e.g., educational, parenting, organizational, etc.), and opens the possiblity of collaborations between teachers, parents, helping professionals, and the like which can take place early in the development of behavior, and outside the more traditional and limited psychotherapy venues. As such, it represents a resource to move counseling and psycholtherapuetic practice into a new generation of conceptualization and activity, and stimulates further research and development on the specific nature and conditions of psychotherapeutic and behavioral interventions.

December 30

9:00–10:15	Montparnesses I & II	**Panel 1: Three Presentations** *Chair:* Elizabeth VAN DALSEM 22. "Elementary School Counseling: Implementing A Systems-Wide Program: A Cross-Pacific Comparison" *Presenters:* Christy REINOLD, John DRYDEN 23. "School Counseling and At Risk Youth (Alaska)" *Presenters:* Cynthia TERRES, Ida SMITH 24. "Smoother Sailing: A Concentrated Elementary Counseling Program (Des Moines)" *Presenters:* Janice KUHL, Charlene WALLACE
	Montparnesses III & IV	**Panel 2: Three Presentations** *Chair:* Amy HITTNER 25. "Counseling Older Adults in the 21st Century" *Presenters:* H. Gordon FEATHERSTONAUGH, Vera S. MAASS 26. "Consultants to Family Caregivers of Older Adults" *Presenter:* Lawrence BRAMMER 27. "A Comparison of Attitudes Toward Aging in Japan and the United States" *Presenters:* Elizabeth O'DONOGHUE, Jane O'HERN, Hisami SHIMBA
10:15–10:35	Versailles Foyer	**Tea Break**
10:35–11:15	Montparnesse I	28. "Sexual Counseling: Setting A Precedent for the 21st Century" *Chair:* Louis FALIK *Presenters:* Lizbeth GRAY, Reese HOUSE
	Montparnesse II	29. "The Children in Hong Kong: A Hurried Generation" *Chair:* Elsie HO *Authors:* MA Ying-Huk, MA HO Wan Fong *Discussant:* Justina LEUNG
	Montparnesse III	30. "Viewing Morita Therapy From A Process-Oriented Perspective" *Chair:* Lawrence BRAMMER *Presenters:* Mariko TANAKA, Roger CUMMINGS, Shinichi USA, Shojiro YAMAMOTO
11:20–12:00	Montparnesse I	31. "Single-Parent Family Student Group in Hong Kong" *Chair:* LAM Man Ping *Presenters:* Betty YAU, FUNG Ching Ping, MA HO Wan Fong, Wendy HO, Carol YANG
	Montparnesse II	32. "Cultural Differences in Decision Making: A Practical Model for Educational and Career Counselors" *Chair:* Robert NEIEDLO *Presenters:* Pearl CHEN, Jessie CHIN, Ann CLARK, Alvin RANDOLPH
	Montparnesse III	33. "Grief Counseling in the 21st Century: A Developmental Model" *Chair:* Sharon SCHULTZ *Presenter:* Jane CAMPBELL
12:00–13:30	Luxembourgh	**Luncheon** *Introduction:* Betty YAU *Speaker:* CHEN Fong-Ching, Director, Institute of Chinese Studies, CUHK "Hong Kong in the Nineties: A Society in Transition"
13:30–14:00	Montparnesse I	34. "Consciousness Raising in Women and Counselor's Role" *Chair:* Judy VAN PATTEN *Presenter:* Yukiko KURATO
	Montparnesse II	35. "Self-Esteem Issues Among Chinese Immigrants" *Chair:* Nancy SCOTT *Presenter:* Sue Lim YEE
	Montparnesse III	36. "Wholistic Growth As the Ultimate Goal of School Guidance and Counseling" *Chair:* Betty YAU *Presenter:* LAM Man Ping
14:10–14:55	Montparnesse I	37. "Psychological Impacts of Emigration on Hong Kong Children" *Chair:* Betty YAU *Presenters:* Alex C.N. LEUNG, Sai-Ling CHAN-SEW
	Montparnesse II	38. "Psychotherapeutic Group Work For The Aged With a Focus on Body and Emotion" *Chair:* Yoshiya KURATO *Presenters:* Ritsuko SAKAI, Keiji AOTANI, Hiroshi MIYAWAKI, Kan'ya KISHIMOTO
	Montparnesse III	39. "Helping Individuals Who Have Been Subjected to Destructive Mind Control Processes" *Chair:* Lizbeth GRAY *Presenter:* Steven HASSAN
15:05–15:50	Montparnesse I	**Panel 1: Two Presentations** *Chair:* C. Scully STIKES 40. "Commitment to Diversity: An Institutional Approach" *Presenter:* Nancy SCOTT 41. "The Changing Face on American Campuses: Challenges for College Counselors" *Presenter:* Debby TSENG
	Montparnesse II	**Panel 2:** "Developmental Guidance in Schools — Emerging Trends in Singapore" *Chair:* Gary BRENDEL 42. "The Whole-School Approach in School Guidance" *Presenters:* Vilma D'ROZARIO, Katherine YIP 43. "Trends and Issues in Teacher Counselor Education in Singapore" *Presenter:* Esther TAN 44. "The Effectiveness of Two Approaches of Career Self-Concept Enhancement for Lower Secondary School Pupils" *Presenter:* LUI Hah Wah Elena
	Montparnesse III	45. "Training Gerontological Counselors for the 21st Century" *Chair:* Lawrence BRAMMER *Discussant:* Amy HITTNER
15:50–16:20	Montparnesse IV	**Tea Break**
16:20–16:50	Montparnesses	**Closing** "A Perspective on the Future of Counseling and Counselor Education" *Chair:* James WINFREY *Presenter:* Sunny HANSON, President AACD "A Look to the Future" William EVRAIFF, Yoshiya KURATO, Betty YAU **Adjourn and Happy New Year** JOIN US FOR THE NEW YEAR'S EVE PARTY

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HONG KONG INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELING: IMPLEMENTING A SYSTEMS-WIDE PROGRAM

A Cross-Pacific Comparison

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Lodi Unified School District
Lodi, California

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South Australian College of Advanced Education
Adelaide, South Australia

ABSTRACT

The widespread appointment of school counselors at the early years of schooling is a recent development in both Lodi, California and South Australia. This paper will outline the establishment and development of such programs in school systems in these two parts of the world. In both cases, the focus is on developmental/preventive programs which are not always problem oriented but which frequently minimize or even eliminate adjustment problems as children prepare to cope in the 21st century. In the South Australian initiative, the present program is linked to current concerns relating to management of student behaviour and is designed to act as a catalyst for whole school change. Coordination and training is between a state department of education (The Education Department of South Australia) and a tertiary institution (The South Australian College of Advanced Education, Underdale Campus).

Elementary School Counseling: Lodi, California

Lodi Unified School District's 350 square mile boundary stretches from the Sierra foothills to the Sacramento/San Joaquin Delta in Central California. Students in the northern reaches of Stockton, a city of 200,000 (ten miles south of Lodi) attend Lodi schools. Lodi Unified School District's present enrollment is approximately 21,600 students.

Citizens of Lodi, as in many communities, are concerned about students who drop out of school, societal pressures upon families resulting in child abuse, drug abuse, teen pregnancy, vandalism and inappropriate school behaviors. Not satisfied with discussing and worrying, the community, through the local school board, took a preventive and proactive approach to address societal concerns which manifest themselves on school campuses. In 1981, with staff, parent and community support, the Lodi Unified School District Board of Trustees set aside general fund monies to initiate an elementary school counseling and guidance program. This program was to be an integral part of the total instructional program. The rationale for including socio-psychological services in the general educational program was premised on research evidence which indicates:

*socio-psychological factors significantly affect learning
*effective teaching is dependent upon the recognition of individual differences and capacities of children to learn
*all students in the sequence of maturation require a system for making satisfactory decisions and adjustments concerning their future and personal life
*the total student and the environment must be considered in order to reach the maximum learning potential

The major objectives of this program are to help students develop a positive self-image; achieve good relationships with peers and adults; discover the power of setting and achieving goals; discover the causes of poor habits and attitudes; develop a plan to attain positive behavior; and create an understanding that career satisfaction requires a positive attitude plus effort. If these objectives are met, the result should be a positive school environment in which a sense of belonging, trust and growth develops so that students can make the most of their educational opportunities.

This program is not a downward extension of secondary school guidance and counseling. It is proactive and preventive to help resolve problems that may prove more difficult to resolve in adolescence and beyond. It is based on the premise that all children can be taught: interpersonal relationship skills; to understand the dynamics of human behavior; satisfying and socially acceptable methods of coping; personal and social considerations in formulating and making decisions.

In accordance with Lodi Unified's educational philosophy, the focus of the elementary school guidance and counseling program is as follows:

1. Guidance is for all children. To assist all children in developing awareness of their strengths, weaknesses, interests, needs and uniqueness.
2. Guidance is developmental. It is an ongoing program to provide assistance during a child's growth and development ever respectful of the dignity and worth of each individual.
3. Guidance is preventive. Some children need assistance at times of crisis, but our focus is preventive, not remedial. Positive and constructive self-direction is our ultimate goal.

In order to realize program objectives, the major portion of counselor time is spent in the classroom. Upon teacher request, the counselor makes from six to eight classroom visits of twenty to forty minute duration in each classroom of the school being served. The counselor provides a unit plan of activities plus suggested follow-up activities for teacher/parent use. Many teachers use the follow-up activities to infuse the concepts presented during the counselor's visit into the basic language arts, health or social studies curriculum. Ideas in the areas of art, music and physical education are also shared. The units are organized to help students: learn how feelings and behaviors are related; examine their own habits and attitudes; take action toward improving their classroom behavior, study skills and work habits and their relationships with peers and adult.

A requested service and highlight of the program for staff, parents and students is the career awareness activities. Before age thirteen, students are making decisions that will have long-range effects upon their career choice and success. Taking this into account job clusters are featured using a variety of equipment and speakers to focus on varying occupations within each cluster. A primary teacher noted on her evaluation of this activity that she had no difficulty getting her students to complete their creative writing assignments during Career Month. Parents related that children who rarely shared experiences from their school day became animated in their conversations when relating career awareness classroom presentations. When career awareness is infused into the curriculum, students develop an appreciation for the relevancy of school and the decision-making skills important in the world of work.

Another staff perceived need and a resulting counselor service is a New Student Group conducted on a weekly basis at a school with a high student mobility rate. New intermediate grade students attend a total of three sessions to review school rules, the difficulties and excitement associated with change and effective methods of making new friends. Teachers have noted a decrease in student adjustment difficulties when this service is utilized.

Elementary school counselors in Lodi Unified encourage the building and maintenance of a positive learning environment through a variety of activities. For example, during a staff meeting following the 1984 Summer Olympics, several teachers expressed concern that some of our United States athletes did not seem to know the words to our National Anthem. The counselor then volunteered to coordinate a student conducted Monday morning program in which student council representatives would lead students in the Pledge of Allegiance and a patriotic song after which announcements of student concern could be made. Teachers saw this activity promote a feeling of community as well as fostering patriotism.

Another valuable service is the coordination of parent and staff workshops organized to relate aspects of child development to parents and staff so that they may more confidently help children as they grow to become the caring, responsible adults society needs.

Counselors also serve as a link with the community and community agencies when outside assistance and referral is needed. An example of the continued community support of the preventive nature of this program is the purchase by community civic organizations of audio-visual materials for counselor use in the area of child molestation and substance abuse. Counselors work closely with law enforcement agencies to help coordinate and infuse substance abuse information into the curriculum.

An annual evaluation of this program is conducted. Anonymous student, teacher and administrative evaluations continue to indicate strong support for not only the continuation but expansion of services. One school faculty placed the need for full time counselor services as the top priority for expenditure of monies as a means to improve the educational program in that school.

Positive outcomes of this program, cited by staff members in terms of program objectives are:

1. Positive changes in pupil behavior
    - *Greater success in meeting the demands of school
    - *Improved peer relations
    - *Manifestation of greater self control
    - *More cooperation
    - *Improved staff/student relations
    - *Reduced number of tardies and absences

2. Improved academic achievement
    - *Better able to concentrate
    - *Display of better listening skills
    - *More on-task behavior
    - *More acceptance of helpful corrections and suggestions
    - *More responsible work habits

The goals and objectives of this program are not stationary words on paper, but become visible through the actions of the elementary school counseling staff which remain responsive to expressed needs of students, staff, parents and the community.

We live in a society which is becoming increasingly complex. The rate of change is increasing and the nature of change is becoming more diverse. Children need to be taught many skills to become efficient, effective and productive human beings and citizens. In school, children acquire skills to meet their educational, career, personal and social needs. They experience school in concert with home and community, and in the context of societal factors that exert an influence upon the processes and upon the results of education. This program evolved to address community perceived needs and will remain dynamic and changing to continue to address the needs and desires of the individuals being served.

Primary School Counselling: South Australia

The South Australian Public Education System is managed state-wide by The Education Department of South Australia. The system has approximately:

186,000 students (Primary:73,000, Secondary:113,000)
14,500 staff
704 schools, with the following breakdown:
- *Reception to Year 7 schools: 450
- *Reception to Year 2 schools: 75
- *Reception to Year 12 schools: 57
- *Year 8 to Year 12 schools: 98
- *Special schools and facilities: 24

Management of the Department rests with a Director General of Education, supported by Directors in each of five areas: Adelaide, Northern, Southern, Eastern and Western. The state has been divided into these areas for administrative purposes within the Department.

In 1985, the Director of the Adelaide Area approved the appointment of the State's first full-time primary school counsellor as a pilot project. The school consisted of a staff of 18 and student population of approximately 290 children in Years 3 to 7. A significant number of students were second phase learners. The school community population included a large number of single parent families, unemployed parents, tradespeople and parents engaged in home management duties. The appointment and aims of the program were directly linked to increasing concerns about teacher stress, school discipline and classroom management practices. Within this framework, the program was proposed as being developmental and preventative, designed to work with the entire school population on identified needs.

A needs assessment was conducted with the staff at the commencement of the program. Their priorities were determined as follows:

1. Classroom Guidance
2. Professional Development of Staff
3. Small Groups
4. Individual Students (Including self-referral)
5. Consultative Service to Teachers
6. Parent Study Groups
7. Consultative/Counselling Service to Parents
8. Teacher Support Groups

Because of the program focus, by the end of 1986, 75% of students seen as individuals and 100% of students seen in small groups were self-referred.

As the program developed, a major portion of the counsellor's time was devoted to professional development and skilling of staff, particularly in the the areas of classroom management and democratic discipline practices. As such, in the school submission made to the Education Department at the start of 1986 requesting continuation of the program, two of the aims listed were: 1) To work with staff to implement a democratic discipline model at this school and 2) To provide expertise in Reality Therapy and the Glasser model.

An evaluation done in July, 1986 by the Student Services Committee (Adelaide Area) found widespread support among the staff for the continuation of the program. Some of the best aspects identified were:

> *Teachers insisted on emphasizing the developmental and preventative aspects of the program. They did not work from a deficit model. The counselling program was available to the whole school community and dealt with the normal concerns of being alive
> *The counsellor worked with the teachers--not for them
> *Staff development was a ongoing, evolutionary process
> *A critical factor in the success of the program was the peer support group facilitated by the counsellor with a focus on classroom management
> *Liaison with parents was a crucial element in the program
> *The counselling program helped considerably with Year 7/8 Transition.
> *The developmental program seemed to be the best way of "legitimizing" the counselling role

Following the implementation of this pilot project, the Student Services Committee for the Adelaide Area tabled a report at the end of 1986 recommending that "the Adelaide Area establish a pilot project to demonstrate a school based developmental counselling model in a limited number of selected schools".

Additionally, the Committee recommended that "appointments should occur in schools which can demonstrate a commitment to democratic decision-making procedures..(since)...the success of developmental programs has been greatest in schools which have a whole staff approach to meeting the social and emotional needs of students."

Further, since no formal training exists in South Australia in the area of primary school counselling, the Committee recommended that "..any appointment to primary schools which have a counselling orientation be subjected to a selection process and a training and supervision program as a necessary prerequisite".

Additional impetus for primary school counselling came from two other sources. Firstly, a major review of education in R-7 schools was undertaken by the Education Department in 1986, and in the report published by the The Primary Education Review in 1988, it recommended that there be appointment of personnel in primary schools who are trained in counselling, community liaison or affective education.

In addition, in October, 1987, a State Government team was established to investigate social and behavioural problems of children and youth in South Australia. The team was comprised of senior officers from the Departments of Treasury, Education, Community Welfare, Premier, Cabinet and The Health Commission. Their report was tabled in December, 1988, and in it they stated that:

> "....an extremely strong case was being made in the various reports on student services for the appointment of counsellors at the primary school level. ...There would...appear to be a service gap of significant dimension in primary schools which could be met by the appointment of counsellors..."

Further incentive for the expansion of primary school counselling was provided by a decision of the Labor Government to legislate the abolition of corporal punishment in schools by the start of 1992. In conjunction with this decision, and coupled with a belief that community perceptions were of deteriorating discipline in State schools, the Director-General announced, on 18 June 1988, "...further new measures to help schools develop discipline and behaviour strategies to promote student learning". These measures included

> "..action to establish the first major network of school counsellors and student behaviour experts in primary schools in South Australia. Seventeen primary schools will become 'focus schools' to highlight how students can learn good behaviour skills by tackling the problems causing misbehaviour. School counsellors will be appointed under a $336,000 strategy to strengthen the skills of teachers in managing student classroom behaviour."

After negotiations between the Education Department and The South Australian College of Advanced Education (Underdale Campus), these new positions led to the establishment in July, 1988 of The Primary School Counselling Project, a joint venture between the two institutions. The project was set up on an 18 month timeline, until December, 1989. In line with the aims stated by the Director-General, the Project was designed to test the hypothesis that establishment of counsellors in primary schools leads to a significant level of reduction in disruptive behaviour.

A Committee made up of personnel from the Education Department (Wendy Johnson, Project Officer, Student Behaviour Management) and The College (The author plus Bill Lucas, Head of School, Studies In Education) was established to coordinate the program, train the personnel involved, evaluate the project, and make recommendations to the management of the two institutions in December, 1989 at the conclusion of the Project.

In January, 1989 additional salaries were allocated to the Project by the Minister of Education. Some funds were also made available by the Areas and selected schools, bringing the current number of primary schools included in the project to 52.

As a part of the Project, several placement models have been tested, including:

*full-time placement of counsellors in one school
*0.5 counselling placement and 0.5 classroom teaching placement in the same school
*0.5 counselling placement and 0.5 classroom teaching placement in a different school
*0.5 counselling placement in two separate schools

With the exception of one placement, all counselling positions include a minimum of a 0.5 counselling component in the assigned school.

Schools were selected for inclusion in the Project based on application addressing advertised essential criteria:

1. Schools who have begun using a 'whole of school' approach to meet the social and emotional needs of their students
2. Schools who can demonstrate the involvement of their staff, students and parents in democratic decision-making processes
3. Schools who can demonstrate a commitment to implement a programme based on a Whole School Developmental and Preventative Model of Counselling and who want a School Counsellor who operates in this mode

Additional desirable criteria were advertised as:

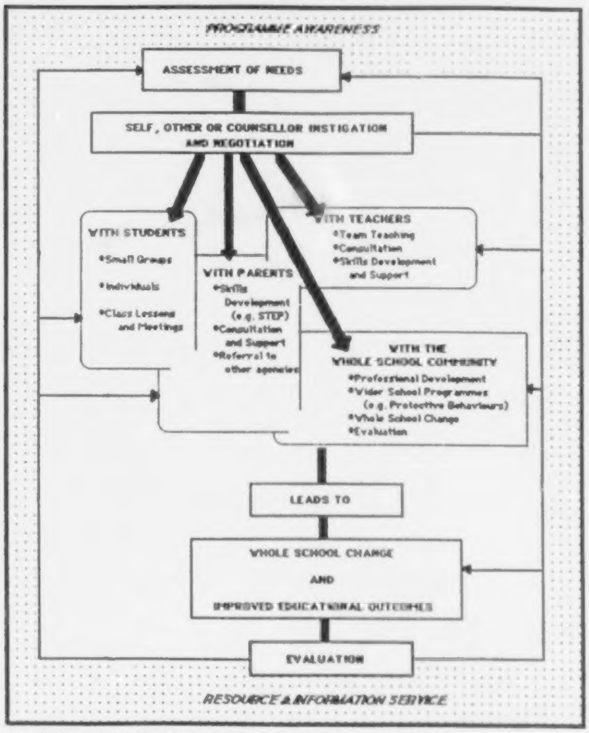
1. Schools with a high number of students from disadvantaged groups
2. Schools who are prepared to act as a focus school for Primary School Counselling and Student Behaviour Management (in the long term)

The model adopted for use by schools in the Project was a Developmental and Preventative Model, (Figure 1) which allows for flexibility and adaptation, based on the perceived needs of the school community. It provides for four main areas of overlapping service: 1) With Students, 2) With Parents, 3) With Teachers and 4) With the Whole School Community. It also provides for multiple entry points depending on the needs and stage of development of the communities involved.

SOUTH AUSTRALIAN PRIMARY SCHOOL COUNSELLING
PROJECT

Coordinating Committee
John Dryden, SACAE (Underdale), 354-6351
Wendy Johnson, Ed. Dept. of SA, 333-8480
Bill Lucas, SACAE (Underdale), 354-6277

A DEVELOPMENTAL AND PREVENTATIVE APPROACH
TO PRIMARY SCHOOL COUNSELLING


PROGRAMME AWARENESS
ASSESSMENT OF NEEDS
SELF, OTHER OR COUNSELLOR INSTIGATION AND NEGOTIATION
WITH STUDENTS
*Small Groups
*Individuals
*Class Lessons and Meetings
WITH PARENTS
*Skills Development (e.g. STEP)
*Consultation and Support
*Referral to other agencies
WITH TEACHERS
*Team Teaching
*Consultation
*Skills Development and Support
WITH THE WHOLE SCHOOL COMMUNITY
*Professional Development
*Wider School Programmes (e.g. Protective Behaviours)
*Whole School Change
*Evaluation
LEADS TO
WHOLE SCHOOL CHANGE
AND
IMPROVED EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES
EVALUATION
RESOURCE & INFORMATION SERVICE

SOUTH AUSTRALIAN PRIMARY SCHOOL COUNSELLING PROJECT (OCT 88, REVISED: JAN 89)

(Figure 1)

In conjunction with the Ministerial announcement that the positions would be designed to "...strengthen the skills of teachers in managing student classroom behaviour" a focus of the model is in the area of professional development, with counsellors acting as catalysts or change agents in leading the school towards Whole School Change and Improved Educational Outcomes. As such, the position has been increasingly seen as a leadership position within the school community, with issues such as tenure and salary level being raised for discussion.

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As previously stated, no formal qualifications currently exist in South Australia in the area of Primary School Counselling. Selection of personnel was therefore based on extensive knowledge, skills, experience and demonstrated success in a range of relevant areas.

Over the life of the Project, inservice training has involved the newly appointed counsellors in:

1) Induction Conference (2 Days)
2) Residential Conference (3 Days)
3) Training days (12), with format and topics negotiated with the personnel involved. Key topics have included:
    *Democratic Decision Making
    *Child Protection & Mandatory Reporting
    *Student Behaviour Management
    *Working With Adults (Teachers & Parents)
    *Equity Issues
    *Marketing The Counsellor

Networks have been developed within Areas and facilitated by designated Area Support Personnel. Additional training has been put into place at Area level through these networks.

In addition to training commitments, each Area has, during 1989, undertaken to organize at least one Programme Awareness Day for school communities in their area. The objectives of these days has been to: 1) Raise community awareness as to the role of primary school counsellors and 2) Showcase the talents and expertise of people in this unique position.

Recommendations regarding:

*continuation of such positions
*placement model
*counselling model
*personnel training and development
*maintenance and support
*formal qualifications (long term)

will be contained in the report due to be presented to The Education Department and The South Australian College of Advanced Education in December, 1989.

Evaluation, both quantitative and qualitative is presently being conducted at a Project, Area and School level, with results to be published in the report.

Data available as of this date supports the hypothesis that such positions do contribute to a significant reduction in disruptive behaviour in the primary schools included in the Project.

HONG KONG INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

SCHOOL COUNSELING AND AT RISK YOUTH

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During the school year 1987-88 a study conducted by the Governor's Interim Commission on Children and Youth (GICCY) examined the status of students in Alaska. The commission's report noted that in a typical class of 40 ninth grade students, the following profile could be expected by graduation time:

1 will commit suicide
4 will become pregnant
2 will give birth
6 will run away
8 will dropout of school
11 will be unemployed
15 will live in poverty
36 will use or abuse alcohol and/or other drugs.

What impact does this information have for those of us responsible for counseling in the schools? What models will be necessary to prevent this from being the generation of the 21st century?

Our presentation focuses on current efforts to plan and execute At Risk student programs involving counselors K-12. These are addressed from the perspective of a practicing elementary school counselor who has also had experience at 7-12 levels, as well as, from the perspective of a districtwide supervisor of K-12 counseling.

Fairbanks' Demographics

The Fairbanks School District covers 7,361 square miles (about the size of New Jersey) and includes a population of 75,079 people. Approximately 14,000 students are served in 33 schools by a total of 1,285 staff. The annual budget is approximately 85.5 million dollars. Students speaking 32 foreign languages, reflecting the district's rich cultural environment, attend our schools. An average Fairbanks' student placed in the 63rd percentile on nationwide testing. A modest but steady increase in student enrollment over the next five years is anticipated.

Planning for At Risk Youth

In the spring of 1988 the Fairbanks School Board adopted five objectives for the 1988-89 school year. One of those objectives was to develop strategies to help At Risk students. Every principal was given the task to develop with school staff a plan to assist these students. The first challenge was to identify Who is At Risk?

Identification of Who is At Risk

Identifying the At Risk student became a major concern. Because of our interest, the district was selected as one of 100 school districts to participate in Phi Delta Kappa (PDK) International Education Fraternity's "A Study of Students At Risk." This project was designed to identify:

Who is at risk?
What are they like?
What is the school doing to help these students?
How effective are these efforts?

Phi Delta Kappa's working definition for At Risk was simply stated, "Children who might fail-- in school or life-- are thought to be at risk." Using this working definition, data were collected from 22,018 students' records in 276 schools. About a third of the students were in the 4th grade, a third were in the 7th grade, and a third were in the 10th grade. Teachers and counselors who knew students best and who had access to school records provided information about each student, including what they did to help each learn. Now individual data has been returned to selected school districts for further analysis. The Fairbanks District will utilize the data as principals and staff develop and implement building plans.

One conclusion determined as a result of the study is, At Risk is not a label that can be applied to a general group with specific strategies to assist them. Rather most At Risk students seem to have multiple factors contributing to their lack of success in school or at life. (See appendix A and complete the activity.)

Often At Risk students go unnoticed until the level of learning required of them is at a high level and/or their coping mechanisms no longer serve to cover up their needs. When these At Risk students are not helped they continue to have lags in learning, or show frustration over the massive amounts of energy required of them to keep up. The constant fear of failure, ridicule and rejection also may add to their problems. It is important that teachers notice these students and make appropriate referrals.

Procedures for School Based Staff

Intervention and assistance for At Risk students initially occur at the classroom level. Teachers need a framework from which to operate to insure that students do not fall through the gaps. We have rather elaborate procedures identified for determining assistance for a handicapped child through special education. What of those At Risk students who may not be diagnosed as learning disabled, behavior disordered, or emotionally handicapped, but who seem to experience similar problems.

Individual schools attacked the problem of identifying students and developing plans to assist them. In one school an IIP (Individual Instructional Plan) is developed for At Risk students. An intervention team meets in much the same way that teams meet for special education to assemble information and provide response to the child's needs. Even though schools developed their own plans individually, certain procedures seem to emerge. Typically, each school included the following steps as they attempted to work with identifying and intervening with At Risk students:

1. Observe - staff observed students over time; they observed them with peers and observed their relationships with others.

2. Gather information - staff gathered data looking at behavior change, poor performance, changes in life situations, etc., recognizing that events were rarely occurring in isolation.

3. Referral - staff learned to make referrals, to make them in writing, and learned confidentiality.

4. Follow-up - staff learned that making individual plans for students and following through was essential.

Considerations For At Risk Plans

In gathering information about At Risk students, four themes seem to emerge. Students demonstrate low self-esteem, seem to lack an ability to trust the future or invest in it, have no sense of accomplishment, and seem to have an inability to connect with others. Implications for counselors to use their skills to encourage positive self-esteem, to provide opportunities for trust building activities, and to help students develop a sense of belonging became apparent.

As schools began developing plans, counselor involvement as part of the team occurred consistently. Most of the elementary school plans particularly focused on enhancing self-esteem. Often counselors were viewed as a primary resource in developing strategies for this component. Other components in school based plans addressed school climate and developing a sense of belonging. Schoolwide programs promoting peer interaction such as substance abuse prevention groups promoting the nonuse of substances emerged. Faculty and staff recognized the need for staff development resulting in the Fairbanks District hosting a three-day statewide conference on Teaching Youth At Risk.

Implications For Counselors

Counselors provide a unique perspective for other staff when approaching the task of developing programs for At Risk youth. Counselors must continue to recognize that being an advocate for all students is at the forefront of our profession. The most difficult student needs an advocate to remind those developing helping plans and strategies that an individual student cannot be helped by applying a label. Personal involvement by someone in the student's life can communicate love, acceptance, and encouragement. Counselors have the skills to help others be that significant someone to our students At Risk.

Summary

In Alaska, we recognize that our state must address the issue of At Risk students. Our school district is attempting through planning and identification to develop workable plans in our schools to work with individual students to encourage their success in school and in life. Counselors are essential in developing procedures and in maintaining student advocacy if plans are to be successful.

APPENDIX A

Listed below are several factors that research suggests relate to being at risk. For purposes of discussion, presume that one child might have several of these problems at the same time. Such a youngster would be seriously at risk.

Can you identify three factors that, if they existed in combination in the life of any student, would be an absolute indication that the student was terribly at risk? Which three factors would you identify?

A. Was expelled from school last year

B. Was absent more than 20 days last year

C. Parents were divorced or separated last year

D. Has been retained in grade (i.e., "held back")

E. Attempted suicide during the past year

F. Has been sexually or physically abused

G. Average grades were below "C" last year

H. Student's sense of self-esteem is negative

I. Uses drugs or engages in substance abuse

J. Scored below 2Oth %ile on achievement test

K. Father is unskilled laborer who is unemployed

L. Was arrested for illegal activity

M. Was involved in a pregnancy during the past year

N. Parent drinks excessively

0. Failed two courses during the last school year

p. Parents have negative attitudes toward education

SMOOTHER SAILING: A CONCENTRATED ELEMENTARY COUNSELING PROGRAM

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"The sea of life is so large while a child's boat is so small."

INTRODUCTION

Death, divorce, physical abuse, alcohol, drugs, and illness in people close to them affect the lives of more young and vulnerable children than most of us would guess.

So do lesser strains that have become enormously apparent to today's children - TV violence, latch-key homes, separation from one or both parents, loneliness, and stress. Any of these experiences can be either maturing or traumatic for children.

Children with certain emotional symptoms that are either mishandled - or not handled at all - may grow to have serious problems. Many of our children are finding the need to turn to drugs, alcohol, suicide, and other tragic solutions in an effort to cope with their lives. They see these "escapes" as the only solutions to the stress, depression, and loneliness. If seen and treated early, children have a far greater chance of being helped.

Realizing that the Des Moines School District was the best opportunity to assist children in dealing with stress and averting crises before they erupt, the business sector asked, "What, if anything, can be done to help in this complicated, chaotic, and too-often stressful process of growing up?"

One way to help is to teach children coping skills for life. These skills will provide children with tools to deal more effectively with problems and circumstances they have no power to change.

Smoother Sailing is a guidance program to help steer kids through childhood turbulence as they progress from kindergarten through the fifth grade. The program is special in two important respects: First it was conceived and is 80% supported by the private sector, (businesses, corporations, individual), with just 20% from the Des Moines school district; and second, it mandates a relationship ratio of one elementary counselor to 250 children.

This really unique experiment could have a tremendous impact on the future of guidance and counseling programs in communities throughout the United States. Smoother Sailing also serves as an example of businesses and public education working together to help children.

**"There is
no greater
community priority
than insuring
our children's physical,
educational, economic
and emotional
safety."**

SMOOTHER SAILING HISTORY

January 1987
Des Moines McDonald owner-operators asked advertising agency to research community priorities.

February 1987
Agency reports to McDonald's owners-operators that the main issue is youth substance abuse.

February-May 1987
At owner-operators request, agency sets up a series of meetings with parents, teachers counselors, substance abuse and law enforcement officials to try and determine what, if anything, could be set up on a community-wide basis to stem the tide of adolescent substance abuse in Des Moines.

June 1987
Based on information and data learned from the meetings, it became clear that efforts to impact the growing substance abuse problem would have to be addressed within the structure of the elementary school curriculum. A program at the elementary school level would also help children deal with the day-to-day realities of parents with less child-rearing time; divorce; verbal, physical and sexual abuse; TV and movie violence; etc.

June-October 1987
Owner-operators began working with public school officials to determine the possibility and scope of a new "stress-management" curriculum in grades K-5.

November 1987-February 1988
Public school officials develop a "do-able" guidance program.

March 1988
Symposium of nationally recognized child guidance experts met in Washington D.C. with the McDonald's owner-operator and Des Moines public school officials to validate the premise of potential enhanced elementary school guidance counselor program. The experts whole-heartedly endorsed Des Moines' pioneering efforts and recommended a student-counselor ratio of 250 to 1.

May-July 1988
Co-op advertising agency "packages" the potential counseling program to begin a community-wide awareness effort on the benefits of such a program.

June 1988
School board approves privately-funded Smoother Sailing program for 1988-89.

July 1988
Owner-operators decide to entirely fund the initial year's pilot program.

September 1988
Smoother Sailing program implemented in ten Des Moines elementary schools.

February 1989
A broader-based funding appeal for the next two years begun.

June 1989
Funding completed for next two years via 35 other local businesses.

September 1989
Second year of program begun.

SMOOTHER SAILING PROGRAM

The Smoother Sailing program is designed to help children develop life coping skills to deal with problems and circumstances they must live with and often do not have the power to change. However, counselor to student ratios of some 1 to 850, typical of many elementary guidance programs, limit counselors' ability to provide a comprehensive program to adequately address students' emotional needs. Many of these counselors are frustrated by the inability to provide little more than superficial assistance to children.

National experts in child guidance and counseling maintain that a counselor to student ratio of 1 to 250 is optimal for providing counselors sufficient time to deal with students' problems. This ratio allows counselors to conduct small group sessions, demonstrated most effective with young children, as well as individual student counseling, classroom prevention programs, and consultation with teachers, administrators, and parents. Counselor time is divided equally in three areas: small group; classroom guidance; and individual counseling and consulting.

(We feel strongly that the majority of counselor time not be spent in doing classroom guidance activities or as planning times for teachers. Small group counseling is greatly valued by staff and parents and we believe that is what keeps us such a vital part of the educational program).

SMOOTHER SAILING PHILOSOPHY

The major emphasis of the elementary school guidance program and Smoother Sailing is to aid in the successful development of the whole child. This includes enhancing the students' feelings of self-worth, improving their skills in making effective decisions, assisting students in the formation of adequate interpersonal relationships, and helping students utilize their potential in order to be successful in school and in life which includes becoming a contributing member of society. This philosophy necessitates a developmental guidance program. The thrust of the program is developmental and preventative rather than remedial or crisis oriented.

The elementary guidance program serves all students and is part of the educational process. It is a planned sequential program that includes those materials, procedures, and techniques that enable students to develop to their fullest potential.

A comprehensive elementary guidance program requires the cooperative effort of counselors, teachers, administrators, support staff, parents and community. A complimentary relationship is necessasry between the instructional and guidance programs to benefit the child in the educational process.

SMOOTHER SAILING PRINCIPLES

Guidance is for all children. Each student is a worthy individual pocessing unique qualities, abilities, and needs. Thus, the elementary guidance and counseling program focuses on the identifying and providing for the individual needs of all students. Each person has the right to dignity as a human being without regard to sex, race, religion, color, socio-economic status, or handicapping condition.

Guidance is developmental. The elementary guidance program is based on the premise that there are needs and concerns which are common to everyone. These common needs can best be met through carefully planned, sequenced programs.

Guidance is preventative. Life skills are developmental and a counselor's primary focus is assisting in the development of these skills.

Guidance is concerned with remediation and crisis counseling. Counselors are aware that some children will need continued counseling for the development of life skills.

Guidance is concerned with society as a whole. Emphasis of the elementary guidance program includes: Understanding the dynamics of human behavior; 2. The development of interpersonal relationship skills; 3. The development of satisfying and socially acceptable methods of coping; and 4. The development of responsibile decision-making skills.

Guidance is an integral part of the total educational program.

STUDENT GOALS

GOAL 1
For students of both sexes, all races, all cultural backgrounds and disabilities to develop positive and realistic self-concepts.

GOAL 2
For students to develop effective communication skills and develop an understanding that improved human relations depend upon increased intergroups and interpersonal communication and cooperation.

GOAL 3
For students to begin to have an awareness of the attitudes, beliefs and rights of self and others while stimulating their respect for the uniqueness of the individual and cultural group.

GOAL 4
For students to begin to communicate their feelings and appropriately respond to the feelings of others.

GOAL 5
For students to develop a sense of responsibility for their own behavior.

GOAL 6
For students to begin to develop skills for effective problem solving, conflict resolution, decision making, and goal setting.

GOAL 7
For students to begin to develop skills for coping with life changes and crises.

GOAL 8
For students to develop personal safety skills.

GOAL 9
For students to become aware of and practice the group process.

GOAL 10
For students to be exposed to situations that aid in developing knowledge needed for educational planning.

GOAL 11
For students to adjust and function effectively in the school environment.

GOAL 12
For students to begin to practice skills that facilitate learning.

GOAL 13
For students to become aware of the diversity of careers and the world of work available to both sexes, all races, cultural backgrounds, and the disabled.

RESEARCH

The evaluation designed was developed by Diane Schnelker, Evaluation Specialist for the Department of Evaluation and Research with the Des Moines School District under the direction of Dr. Robert Myrick, Counselor Educator from the University of Florida, Gainesville.

The design, in our opinion, is extremely solid. The design incorporates six of the seven types of practicitioner reporting listed in an article entitled, "Measuring Implementation of Social Treatment" (Reed, Hanrahan 1988) in New Directions for Program Evaluations. Smoother Sailing is formally evaluating the impact of counseling on the development of life coping skills among elementary students and the effects of the counselor to student ratio. The evaluation design calls for dividing elementary schools across the disrict into three groups representing three different counselor to student delivery plans, and incorporates both qualitative and quantitative research strategies to document the type and impact of counseling activities provided.

Method

As stated above, the elementary schools in the district were divided into three groups. Group 1 included schools served with a counselor to student ratio of 1 to 250. Schools in group 2 were served with the counselor to student ratio of approximately 1 to 850). Schools in the third group did not have a counselor staffed to the building but received support services as needed and/or upon request.

Elementary counselors submitted a record of their weekly activities. Opportunities were available to indicate the number and type of contacts made with students, staff, parents, and the community in general. Counselors recorded the number of new referrals received weekly and the number of these referrals they were able to address each week. Responses from the counselors serving buildings with a 1 to 250 counselor to student ratio (i.e., Smoother Sailing counselors) were compared to responses from counselors serving buildings with a 1 to 850 ratio (i.e., Non-Smoother Sailing counselors).

Counselors were also asked to submit detailed descriptions of the assessment, intervention, and outcome of four select cases during the year. In addition to providing qualitative evidence of counseling activities and their effects, these case studies are reviewed to supplement data regarding the frequency and types of interventions typically performed by counselors.

Concerning the counselor activity profiles, an early analysis of the weekly logs demonstrates differences in the nature of the counseling program provided to Smoother Sailing and Non-Smoother Sailing schools. Smoother Sailing counselors had significantly more small group contacts, participated in significantly more staffings, and had significantly more contacts with principals and other counselors, and had significantly more home visitations and written correspondence with parents than Non-Smoother Sailng counselors. Non-Smoother Sailing counselors had significantly more classroom guidance contacts and contacts with teachers and other special services personnel and made significantly more classroom observations. "There were no significant differences between the number of individual counseling contact, professional development experiences and telephone contacts with parents or community contacts.

Concerning referral rates, counselors were asked to monitor the number of referrals they received from students or staff and the number of those referrals they were able to respond to during the week. As expected, Non-Smoother Sailing counselors received significantly more referrals each week than Smoother Sailing counselors. There was no significant difference in the number of new referrals met.

Dividing the number of referrals met by the number of total referrals received yields an index of the rate of referrals met. Results indicate that during the time period observed, Smoother Sailing counselors had a significantly higher rate of referrals met than non-Smoother Sailing counselors. Smoother Sailing counselors addressed approximately 60 percent of the weekly referrals.

In conclusion, a cursory review of available data confirms expectations about the impact of the counselor to student ratio on the inmplementation of a comprehensive elementary guidance program. While both Smoother Sailing and Non-Smoother Sailing counselors devote relatively equal amounts of the to individual counseling sessions, Smoother Sailing counselors appear to have more time for small group experiences. They also appear to have greater opportunities to communicate with parents/guardians through home visits and written correspondence. This information and availability to the building allows Smoother Sailing cousnelors greater opportunity to minimize the need for formal referrals and to participate more directly in decisions that affect students. The activity profile on Non-Smoother Sailing counselors appears to be more reactive than proactive.

Verbal and written feedback from administrator's teachers, parents, and students provided even a more complete description of the needs of elementary students. Examples of this feedback follow:

Superintendent's Report

"The children of Smoother Sailing are benefiting personally from better problem-solving skills. Their families, neighborhoods, and the business community will benefit as well, making the Smoother Sailing impact on our future an investment in the 21st century."

Principals' Reports

"Children must have their emotional needs addressed and learn ways of coping with conditions they cannot change in their personal lives before they can seriously tackle their responsibilities for learning what is taught in the classroom. Smoother Sailing helps them to do that. Discipline has improved, there are fewer fights, children treat each other better, and the school climate is more positive."

"We have a lot of diversity among our students - social, economic, racial, academic. Our Smoother Sailing counselor works well with all the students and helps them feel comfortable with each other by opening communication channels. Many students need someone to talk to, and they will not always open up to someone in authority - a teacher, a principal, a parent. When the student has had help from the counselor who keeps everything confidential, they can usually pick up and go on with life."

Teachers' Reports:

"Discipline problems are fewer. The students are kinder and more gentle not only with the staff members, but with each other. There is a definite family atmosphere in the building. I would personally like to thank those who donated to make it all possible."

"The Smoother Sailing counselor really helps our students. In my class one girl was disturbed because her mother was being beaten by the girl's step-father. Another was tearful because she was not being allowed to visit her dying father (divorced from mother who had custody). One boy found sleeping at night sometimes difficult because when it rained, the covers got wet. One girl wrote in her journal she wished to be dead. The counselor helped these students and many others who have problems and concerns that too often go unrecognized."

SMOOTHER SAILING - AWARENESS AND FUND-RAISING PROJECTS

Awareness - The Smoother Sailing expanded elementary counseling program, in its first school year (1988-1989), has enjoyed a tremendous awareness factor in the Greater Des Moines area. Both awareness and fund-raising are equally impoprtant in our marketing plan. One compliments the other: both are vital to success.

Media - From the very beginning, Smoother Sailing was blessed by the fact that three top-rated radio and TV stations adopted the unique program as a public service emphasis. WHO Radio, WHO-TV and KLYF Radio have aired hundreds of 30 and 60 second public service announcements--many during prime time and news broadcasts. Smoother Sailing has been featured on every radio and TV program segment from most desirable morning drive radio, to talk shows, community affairs programming--even weather and sports! It has created not only a general public awareness, but a quiality puiblic awareness. Several feature stories have also appeared in The Des Moines Register and other mass-audience print publications. Naegele Outdoor Advertising has donated a huge rotary billboard worth more than $25,000 to Smoother Sailing for a year's impact.

McDonald's Restaurants:
The 16 McDonald's in the Greater Des Moines area have contributed heavily right from the very beginning in conceptualizing, planning, promotion and major funding. Because of the high visibility enjoyed by any McDonald's promotion, and because they did so many promotions for Smoother Sailing, the program has benefited from hundreds of thousands of memorable, quality awareness impressions.

Promotional Materials:
Quality communcation materials (brochures, posters, collaterial materials and highly professional videotape products) produced by another good "crew" member--Kraigie/Newell Advertising Agency--have been handed out and seen by thousands in and beyond the Greater Des Moines Area.

Three Million More Impressions!
Anderson/Erickson, Iowa's largest independent dairy, featured Smoother Sailing on the backs of their milk cartons for a 30 day period. at least 3 million impressions for Smoother Sailing in our Central Iowa rea, and probably close to 9 million (!) impressions throughout AE's vast customer area in Iowa and surrounding states.

Fund-Raising:
One of the unique features of Smoother Sailing is the fact that it was founded and is maintained by private funding from a caring, visionary Des Moines business community and individuals.

> McDonald's: During the first year, McDonald's was our major fund contributor.
>
> Corporate: An aggressive effort by local businessmen has resulted in funding of the 10-school program for the next two years. Additional funds are constantly being sought to expand the program and its benefits.
>
> Promotions: Many expansion dollars are being raised by a diverse range of pubic fund-raiser promotions such as: T-shirt sales, elementary school map sales, ice cream sales, and a whole range of business tie-in fund raisers.
>
> Gifts and Grants: On-going emphasis is also placed on contributions and donations from small businesses, individuals, foundations, church groups and service clubs. State and federal funding is also being studied.

Counseling Older Adults in the 21st Century

by

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Summary

A significant issue that will affect counseling older adults in the future will be deterioration of self-esteem. Elderly workers will see their retirement date recede as more work years are required to fund the Social Security system. Pressure from technologically better equipped young workers will relegate older employees to jobs that represent diminished responsibility and power.

Today's counselors are ill equipped to handle complicated problems of self-esteem, self-worth and indeed, any other concern that pertains to concepts of the self. Rather than pointing to a deficiency in counselors exclusively, this poor performance is attributable to divergent theories and the multitude of conflicting treatments that derive logically from them.

A challenge for the future will be theory development and practice breakthroughs that make sense and ease the shock of personal encounters with extended work and shrinking prestige. Rather than propose a solution to this challenge, the purpose of this presentation is to spark comments and suggestions that will help set the path for counselors of the future.

There are two things that may be said with some degree of certainty about men and women who will turn sixty-five in the 21st Century. There will be a lot of them early in the century and their characteristics will be different from the older adults we know today. Today's senior citizens, whose attitudes were shaped by the Depression and World War II, have come to know the next generation as baby boomers and yuppies. We've watched them in awe, the generation of ultimate consumers, as they reject freely offered tap water in favor of a $3.50 glass of Perrier.

Advances in medical technology helped give us the first generation of relatively healthy older adults. While the stereotype remains, sixty-five year olds are not riddled with illness and poised with one foot in the grave. Most of the people in this age group, that has grown from 2.5 million to more than 30 million since the turn of this century, have the potential to be productive for another decade. Along with the shift in population composition, resources have been reallocated until about one quarter of the national budget is dedicated to the elderly (Dychtwald, K. & Flower, J. 1989).

The developing social climate promises to yield growing tensions. While the Social Security system, that provides a major avenue for retirement, seems to be adequately funded for the near term, the surplus will begin to decline in about thirty years. Without a change in current retirement practices, it's likely that there will be fewer than two people at work for every retired person when the decline begins (Crystal, S., 1982). As the seventy-six million baby boomers fit into the category of older adults, the fund will quickly become depleted unless there are drastic changes in the Social Security system and in current retirement options.

The attitudes of today's relatively healthy older adults may not survive into the 21st Century, but it is interesting to note that retirement at the earliest opportunity is a popular option. Early retirement is relatively new. Prior to 1945, few companies had pension plans for their workers. Social Security made retirement generally attractive. As the average retirement age approaches sixty, less than fifteen percent of older adults remain at work.

An early retiree who was caught in a company merger says, "No way will I take a job at lower pay and less responsibility. I want to retire when I'm at the top." "Thirty and out" says an autoworker, "I've got only 120 get-ups to go." With his disability application in hand, the construction worker rationalizes, "I've put in twenty years of this stuff. My back is killing me. I can't take any more of it."

Because an ever increasing quantity of Medicare funds, now about twenty-five billion dollars per year, is spent to prolong the final year of elderly lives, it's probable that acute care measures, such as major surgery and dialysis treatments, will be restricted. In competition for resources with child care and health care needs of other young people, such as medication and hospitalization for AIDS related diseases, it's almost certain that retired men and women will continually face a triage process in which major decisions affecting their quality of life will be made on the basis of age.

Once tax free, Social Security payments may now be progressively reduced on the basis of total income. This seems to set the stage for a means test as qualification for retirement payments. Other program features, that older workers have learned to believe are entitlements, are also prospects for change. Changes in the retirement system seem to presage additional years of work and escalating salary deductions to pay for minimal sustenance over the expected life span. It will come as no surprise if future workers remember today's affluent retirees, then think about their remaining years as, "What a mess. Nothing ahead but work. Then it's the junk heap."

When a counselor offers the cliché, "God doesn't make junk," the older adult may agree with the premise, but think to herself, "I'm old, still at work. No one finds me lovable, beautiful or worthy; therefore I must be unlovable, ugly and worthless." (Williams, J.H., 1977).

Writers have found the source of feelings about ourselves in the circumstances of our environment (Skinner & Vaughn, 1983) or in thoughts, with only indirect influence from the environment (McKay & Fanning, 1987). Sanford & Donovan (1978) believe that self-esteem is shaped in interpersonal relationships and influenced by the general social environment.

From the addiction field, Whitfield (1987) observes that self-esteem is both a feeling or emotion and an experience that happens to the total self. He

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believes that low self-esteem "comes from the negative messages we get from our parents that tell us that we are somehow not all right." A marriage counselor and parent educator tells us, "Your self-image was put together by you from how others saw and treated you. It may or may not be true. You have come to see yourself through the eyes of significant others from your past. Since your image is learned, you can reprogram defective self-attitudes" (Briggs, 1977).

Some theorists shy away from notions such as self-esteem and self-worth. They have considered similar characteristics or concepts, but have given them names such as a sense of competence, significance, authenticity and many others. The flood of similar concepts with different names may help describe some theoretical nuances, but it has put a burden of misunderstanding and confusion on the pair in the treatment process, counselor and client.

To the bewildering array of concepts about ourselves that theorists have given us, counselors have responded with a confusing and conflicting set of treatment measures that often make little sense to those clients who face questions about their place in the world. Even Albert Ellis (1973), who can be counted upon usually to provide hypotheses that have a chance of being tested empirically, reluctantly presents some clients with the assertion that they are worthwhile because they are alive.

When the treatment team declares that a patient has low self-esteem, the counselor's reflex is to initiate a program designed to fill that deficit. To requests for specific treatment ideas, team members are likely to reflect their favorite theorist or to draw from their clinical experience.

Some counselors believe that it's impossible to determine a person's worth. Skill in bank robbery does not have a high rating among bankers, but a world class bank robber may indeed feel worthy and swell with self-esteem after a successful heist. Even though the Ego Strength score may fall through the floor of the MMPI profile sheet, a number of counselors believe that self-esteem is too abstract to consider in the treatment process. As difficult as it is to find two people who agree on measures of self-esteem, other counselors take the view embedded in the phrase, "You can't love anyone else until you love yourself" and adopt self-esteem, or the elimination of self-hate, as a primary treatment issue.

Answers to the question, "What's a counselor to do?" take many forms. Counselors may simply ask patients to generate a list of things they like about themselves or things they like to do. Those who believe that self-esteem is developed through relationships are likely to set up group exercises. In a process that he describes as elegant, Albert Ellis (1973) works toward the notion that it's reasonable to evaluate and rate behavior and behavioral traits, but it's futile to rate or label yourself, the whole person.

Patients who come to treatment for chemical dependency are super-stars in the world of low self-esteem. They are likely to express attitudes about themselves, often obliquely, in terms of what they do, what others think about them or about the consequences of their behavior. "I feel bad about drinking on the job. That job is too important for me and my family to lose." "Anybody could have done it better." Loss of control or a glitch in their ability to manipulate are common themes. "I bluffed her for so many years; I didn't think she'd leave me." "I made a fool of myself at the party." We've included examples of a chemically dependent patient and two other clients who are working on self-esteem.

He had his first drink when he was a teen-ager. Thirty years later his drinking history, which included a fifth of vodka daily for several years, has earned him a ticket of admission when he introduces himself at AA meetings with, "Hi, I'm Bill. I'm an alcoholic." The introduction fails to mention Bill's arguments with his wife, the assault on his self-esteem, guilt, back pain, and prescription pain pills; all have become part of a predictable relapse pattern. Bill has struggled valiantly in this self-defeating scenario, but has steadfastly refused to recognize the relationship between the cyclical events. He and his wife have attended family counseling and numerous self-help group meetings. Probably because Bill has a long and undisputed record of failure to meet his family's expectations and his own potential, his sense of self-worth is indeed fragile. His guilt feelings are extra-ordinary in frequency and intensity. Bill's latest venture into the realm of addiction counseling is in individual sessions with multiple addiction, self-esteem and guilt as central treatment issues.

Mary kept a family secret for sixty-five years. Also, during that time she suffered through several hospitalizations, she searched for forgiveness through repeated trips to her fundamentalist altar, and she was treated, by prescription, to almost every tranquilizer and anti-depressant medication introduced in the past thirty years. Now in her seventies, Mary has begun to break the oath of secrecy that her uncle imposed when he paid her ten cents following regular sexual abuse. Oddly enough, the dime with which Mary was able to buy candy for her and her friends was a powerful source of status in her poor neighborhood. In her attempts to explain the lies that she told friends about her riches, the excuses she fabricated about her absences, and the anxiousness with which she greeted each day, she concluded that she was defective and sinful. When her attempts to become reborn in her religious faith provided only temporary relief from a growing sense of doom, she developed the belief that she was beyond redemption, condemned.

Cindy's sickly father was a poor provider; her mother supported the family by working at a job she detested. While she failed to learn that work could be rewarding, Cindy associated her difficult circumstances with the lack of money. As a young man, Richard seemed to have it all, parents who owned a flourishing business and a flashy car as soon as he was old enough to get a driver's license. Cindy's beauty and Richard's popularity provided their attraction for each other in high school. Neither could see the value in additional academic training. Their marriage was a major social event in their small town and they settled into the easy life. Cindv took care of the children; Richard began to learn the family business. Richard's parents supplied the resources necessary for them to join the country club and support a long list of community functions. Now middle aged, Cindy and Richard are faced with a future being shaped by circumstances that they failed to anticipate. Richard inherited his father's business, but the work ethic that made his father a success was not part of the inventory. And, in spite of innovative medical technology that has kept Richard alive since he developed the late stage of a congenital disease, he needs constant attention. Cindy works. While her friends continue to see her as an attractive woman and she is able to handle her retail sales job, she hates each day that seems a constant blur of work at the store and work as she cares for Richard. Both Cindy and Richard seem to have lost a sense of significance and self-worth as they face their remaining years.

In arguments with his wife, Bill is reminded of many things that he has failed to do in the past. Each reminder is painful. He responds with a backache. Who can fault him for seeking medical treatment? Mary's normal development of self-esteem was stunted by the secret that she kept for many years. For her, low self-esteem has become a pervasive characteristic that affects most of her daily behavior. It's likely that Cindy and Richard did not realize how fragile their sense of self-esteem was until their life circumstances changed drastically. All of them, older adults in the waning years of the 20th Century, are actively seeking help to change.

While it is likely that those who seek professional help in the 21st Century will begin to see the experience as a natural way to augment their problem solving skills, there is no reason to believe that counselor offices will over-flow. The high cost of providing an hour of therapy will become apparent to all participants. Cost recognition and the push toward containment will continue. It's reasonable to believe that insurance companies and employers will escalate their efforts to limit mental health expenditures. A probable side effect will be to widen the socio-economic patient gap that we know today.

Pharmaceutical companies will continue to put their most inventive chemists to the task. For inspiration, they may look back to Sigmund Freud's introduction of cocaine to his betrothed as a substance that "will put roses in your cheeks." They will, of course, seek to eliminate some of the side effects of the diet pills, tranquilizers and pain killers that have been produced in the past century.

Private practitioners will see fewer clients who are in middle income brackets as employers are successful in shifting the cost of therapy. Counseling professionals will be faced with pressure to develop band-aid therapies and so-called preventive programs, anything that will substitute for the labor intensive therapeutic process that developed in the 20th Century.

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Consultants to Family Caregivers of Older Adults

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Effective and humane family care of aged persons has been a human problem for millenia; but the issue of care has become acute due to increasing longevity, family disorganization, and smaller families. In addition, the shrinking birth rate is reducing the pool of family caregivers. This paper will examine recent data on the conditions and problems of family caregivers of older adults in the United States. These data will serve as a context for reporting a study of consultants for family caregivers. The focus of this paper is on the caregiver's needs rather than the needs of the care receiver.

American demographic trends on aging are well publicized in the United States; but the problems created by increasing longevity are worldwide. At the XIVth quadrennial Congress of the International Association of Gerontology held in June 1989 at Acapulco Mexico the United Nations reported on world trends in aging. It is estimated that by 2025 there will be 1.2 billion persons over 60 with 70% of these to be in industrially developed nations (Bergman, 1989). Social services and family caregivers are already overwhelmed in industrial countries; but as other countries develop, older adults probably will have a decreasing role in the society and will have less family support, and thus will need more care.

In the United States there is growing concern about the plight of the caregiver. They have only recently been spotlighted by the media. Women have been the traditional caregivers to relatives. Over 75% of the caregivers are women- usually daughters or spouses. Since the number of women in the work force has risen dramatically there are fewer available caregivers. Those who do assume this responsibility are typically mothers of dependent children and gainfully employed, at least part time. So they are under enormous time pressures and experience special stressors if the older adult has mobility, sensory, or mental problems. So, while the pool of available caregivers is shrinking the numbers of older adults are increasing in proportion to the rest of the age groups, with those in the 85 plus group growing at the fastest rate. With 1980 as a baseline the numbers of persons 85 and older are predicted to increase 700 per cent by the year 2050 (Maturing, 1989). Most of the older adults receive care from relatives and about ten per cent live independently with occasional outside help. Only five per cent reside in a long term care facility.

One source of pressure on caregivers in the US is economic. Only the affluent and the poor can receive the home services and respite care that offer some relief to the caregiver. The average American family cannot afford home care services or long term nursing home care. Caregivers who have very recently assumed care responsibility usually have little knowledge of community support services and are often overwhelmed by the complexities and comprehensiveness of total care.

A large study of US caregivers' characteristics and problems was conducted for the American Association of Retired Persons last year (AARP,1988). Forty per cent of caregivers are caring for their mothers or grandmothers, 12 per cent caring for fathers, and 10 per cent caring for spouses. Slightly more than half of the care recipients were housebound with a chronic disability. Half the care recipients lived in their own home near the caregiver. The remaining half live with the caregiver and in most instances receive constant care. This latter group puts the greatest strains on the caregivers because 42 per cent of them are working outside their home full time, and 63 per cent are the primary caregivers. One fourth have been providing care for six or more years, and nearly all the current caregivers expected to continue providing care for an indefinite period of time. From the brief data cited above it is apparent why most caregivers have great need for support, information, stress management, respite, and hope. Especially with relatives having severe mental impairment, such as irreversible Alzheimer's disease that causes progressive dementia and personality disintegration, it is apparent why caregivers suffer such severe morale and stress problems. Caregivers in affluent and poor economic conditions can hire or get government services, but the large majority in the middle cannot afford expensive home care and case management services. The resulting family stress was well documented in a forum on "Stress and Coping in Later Life Families" (Landers, 1989). DeAngelis reported on research with caregivers of Alzheimer patients. One third of caregivers had a bout of severe depression during their caregiving years compared to one per cent of a matched non-caregiving group. An estimated eighty per cent of care for Alzheimer patients is provided by family caregivers (NIMH, 1988).

The principal need for caregivers is support- emotional and substantive in the form of services, such as respite. The most extensive study of the effects of such support on caregivers to older adults was the "Family Support Project" (Montgomerey and Borgatta, 1985). This study, conducted with 306 family units in a large metropolitan community, examined the effects of alternate strategies for supporting family caregivers. Family training (including education seminars, coordination services and caregiver support groups), and volunteer and paid respite services. The design included various combinations of these services and strategies. The results indicated that families were difficult to recruit. They used few services, and they were fiercely independent and skeptical of outside help. As a result the families came into the project in a state of crisis, making it difficult for the project to meet their critical needs. Thus, it was difficult to test the effect of preventive services. The caregivers were very satisfied with the seminars, especially with information on community services. They had paid or volunteer respite care so they could attend the seminars. The respite services were difficult to manage, especially for the volunteers who had to be coordinated and trained. Families often wanted respite care when the volunteers were not available. The sense of burden for caregiving was reduced in the primary treatment group and the caregivers' attitudes toward the care receivers improved significantly during the project. The use of services as a result of the project's influence was not significantly different from a control group. A key implication of this extensive study of caregiver support services is that families in need must be discovered early to avoid crises, access services as a preventive measure, and to keep the older adult in the family longer. Families need to be taught how to access and use older adult community support services.

A Study of Consultant Services to Cargivers

Against this information backdrop the American Association for Retired Persons designed "Project Access." This pilot program featured trained volunteer consultants to work with family members who were caring for older adults in long term family care and to work cooperatively with the recipients of that care. The main purpose of the project was to keep older adults in the community under family care as long as possible. Institutional care is not only very expensive but puts the older person at risk for psychological deterioration often associated with such care. The specific goals were to provide family assistance in the form of information about services, personal support, and consultation on making decisions. Thus, the caregiver was groomed to be the care manager. The purpose of the study to evaluate Project Access was to provide data on program improvement and to determine if the project was reaching its goals effectively. Effectiveness was defined in terms of satisfaction of caregivers and care receivers with the consultants' services. Their satisfaction was related to broadened awareness of options for action, making supplemental care decisions, and utilizing community care support services.

Methods. Volunteers were selected on the basis of their commitment, potential consulting skills, and personal traits. They were given sixteen

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hours of training in community services, family consultation skills, needs assessment and family planning for long-term care. They were assigned to families who were not in a state of crisis and had an identified caregiver.

The investigator used accepted practices of qualitative program evaluation. The methods included structured , in-depth interviews with the volunteer consultants, family caregivers, care receivers, referral agency personnel, and gerontological specialists familiar with Project Access. The subjects included eight consultants, fourteen caregivers, four care receivers, four referral agents, and twelve gerontological specialists. The interviews with consultants and caregivers included personal background information, such as education and experience, to obtain profiles of the two groups. The second piece of information from the interviews was their reaction to experiences with Project Access which constituted the bulk of data for this pilot study.

The consultants were assigned to families by the project supervisor on the basis of geographic convenience and presumed compatibility based on the wishes of the volunteer consultant. The supervisor was also the trainer for the sixteen hours of seminar and skills training so he knew the volunteers quite well. The supervisor also served later as a consultant to the volunteers for problems or policy questions that came up. The caregivers were referred by senior information and assistance phone interviewers and hospital discharge agencies who were familiar with the goals, potentials, and limitations of Project Access. The volunteer consultants then made appointments in the caregiver's home, often conjointly with the care receiver when possible. They made a preliminary needs assessment and then worked out a family prescription cooperatively with the caregiver. This prescription, for example would include which services would be contacted, when and by whom. The volunteer attempted to keep as much responsibility on the caregiver for arrangements since it was presumed that the caregiver, not the volunteer consultant, would be the care manager. The range of appointments was two to eight since followups were often deemed desirable by the caregiver or the consultant.

The role of the volunteer consultant was to offer reasonable emotional support to the caregiver who often was desperate when the interview took place. The volunteer was not to act as a non-professional therapist however. The most important role was to offer valid information or to suggest reliable sources of information about services. The third purpose was to help the caregiver through a problem solving process of determining what the problem really was, how to use the information being given, what options for solution were possible and then to select one to work on immediately. Frequently, the caregiver was thrust into the role without preparation, so the opportunity to define the problem and to examine various solutions was much needed.

Results and Conclusions. The interview data indicated that Project Access was achieving its goals as judged by the caregivers' high levels of satisfaction with volunteer consultant services and family utilization of supplemental community care services. The volunteers reported a high level of satisfaction and fulfilment for doing a significant service. All reported that they planned to continue with the project. Their opinions about the training generally were favorable, although they wanted specific changes such as having modelling tapes of a consulting session. One of the greatest concerns of the consultants was facing that first interview with a caregiver. The length of training (16 hours) was considered about right by the consultants considering that they were volunteers and that almost all had professional and community service backgrounds which would transfer to this new volunteer role.

The gerontological specialists, some of whom served on an advisory committee to Project Access agreed that the project's services were needed and that its potential was great. All had reservations and concerns around selection, training, assignment and supervision of volunteers. The specialists, from their experience with volunteers in other contexts, indicated that volunteers tended to get involved beyond their training and experiences and that they often were reluctant to refer. They were concerned also that volunteers often lacked the judgment so essential to a complex human service such as family consultation. There was no evidence in this pilot project that these concerns were valid, or that the volunteers exceeded their role limits. The implications of these concerns for future volunteer training in this and similar projects, however, are great. The specialists' observations that volunteers often get discouraged and irritated when families do not follow through with agreed plans, was present in this group of Project Access volunteers. The specialists were agreed that two keys to success of a program such as Project Access were the nature and quality of supervision and close cooperation with the formal professional services network. Both of these conditions were present in the conduct of this pilot project and probably were partly instrumental in its success.

It was concluded from the results of this pilot project that this was a useful model to support family caregivers and to help postpone long term institutionalization of the older adult. It appeared to supplement the formal care management network by serving the middle and lower middle income groups who cannot afford or who are not elegible for community *care management services.*

One limitation of this study was that the small numbers of volunteer consultants and families make generalization difficult. A more extensive study is needed to test this model of service delivery. This new study should include small town and rural populations since this pilot included only families in a large metropolitan area rich in human services. Since the volunteers in this study were unusually able and experienced it would be useful to test this model with volunteers having different backgrounds in education and experience.

Implications of This Model

Some of the problems that would need to be addressed in replications of this type of service in other settings would be to screen volunteer applicants carefully for this complex and sensitive role of consultant. Even with skilled and well trained volunteers professional supervision would be a requirement for helping the volunteer to cope with complex policy issues, problem families, and personal reactions to the role that might interfere with effectiveness. An example is the discouragement often expressed by volunteers when family caregivers do not follow suggestions, or do not appear to be making progress toward solution of their problems. It is easy for volunteers to be overwhelmed by the needs of the family and to become too emotionally involved in the caregivers' problems. Thus, it would be important for the supervisor to be a skilled counselor. In addition, the provision of adequate administrative support to manage a volunteer program, such as recruitment of families, assignment of volunteers, and monitoring of such a project is essential. Managing the volunteer program was a key limiting issue in the Family Support Project cited earlier.

Location of families who could use consultant services is a problem in mounting a successful program of this type. This project started as a single entry system with referrals from the county senior information and assistance program. The interviewers who knew the Project Access program goals and potentials could refer appropriate families. Thus, crisis situations could be screened and families eligible for government care management services, or families who could afford private care management consultants, could be avoided. Later in the project, however, other sources of eligible families were developed, such as hospital discharge units.

A key implication for a project of this type is to keep the role of the consultant clearly defined. The training and supervision of the volunteers must continually emphasize these limitations. In this project, for example, the role was limited to needs assessment, giving information, and assisting the caregiver to use that information to solve the immediate and longer range problems. In this process the caregiver experienced the supportive presence of the consultant with resulting increased caregiver confidence, competence, and hope. This is a tricky issue, however, since there is a temptation for the consultant to move into the role of therapist to the caregiver, especially if they have had some previous professional background in counseling. Clear policy guidelines, trained consultant judgment, and careful supervision should maximize the supportive value of the consultant's presence without committing themselves to involved therapeutic relationships. It may be that in rural communities without support services that volunteers could be utilized in a much wider range of services to caregivers.

In spite of the problems associated with the use of volunteers the potential for services to families offering care to older adults is great. Current public policy in the United States supports the use of volunteers for human services and the research literature is testimony to the effectiveness of volunteers serving in carefully defined service roles. From my observations in other countries, such as the Peoples Republic of China, the use of older volunteers for human services is commonplace. The use of retired persons as volunteers taps a vast talent pool to assist communities to meet their family service needs. As we know from the research on peer helpers also, the person doing the helping service gains as much or more personally than the recipient of that service. By pooling our experiences in different national and cultural contexts it is possible to develop a model of family service to older adults that will be effective and that will minimize the psychological strain on the family caregivers.

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A Comparison of Attitudes Toward Aging in Japan and the United States

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Attitudes toward Aging

ABSTRACT

The percentage of the elderly is increasing in populations world-wide. Japanese society is rapidly changing from a traditional value system which has been in effect for centuries to a more "Westernized" value system (Yamane, 1984). The United States has had a longer period of time in which to recognize the increase in longevity among its population and to provide social support systems for the elderly. However, attitudes about the aging process held by and about the elderly can greatly affect the quality of life of aging persons. Differences in attitudes toward the aging process between Japanese and United States cultures were examined and implications for counseling the elderly were drawn.

Growing old is a fact of life. However, as someone once said, it sure beats the alternative! An interesting fact is that old age is regarded differently between different societies, with some people looking forward to a time of relative peace and tranquility, and others fighting it each step of the way. What are those cultural ingredients that allow some people to face the aging process with a degree of acceptance, while in others create a fear of aging? We have examined two cultures, that of Japan and the United States, in an attempt at identifying some of the differences and similarities in their views of aging. We have looked at attitudes held by and toward older people in the past and present, and how those attitudes are changing, and the implications of those attitudes for counseling in the 21st century.

Improved health care, better nutrition and disease control, have contributed to greater individual longevity. More people are living to 100-plus years (Brandt, 1988). In fact, the fastest-growing population in the United States is the 65 and older age group (Harris, 1978; Rathbone-McCuan and Havens, 1988; Miller, 1988). In Colonial times in the United States, the elderly comprised less than 3% of the population (Fischer, 1977). According to statistics provided by the American Association of Retired Persons (AARP), the percentage of Americans over age 65 in 1987 was reported to be 12.3%. In 1985, the percentage of people over 65 years old in Japan was 10.2%, and the proportion of the aged is rapidly increasing every year (Yamane, 1984).

Another similarity is that in both societies, 3 out of 4 elderly people are women. However, a major difference between the two countries lies in the time-frame of the increase in the aging populations. Since World War II, Japan has rapidly changed to a society with a relatively high percentage of aged people. The Japanese society may be said to have aged in one generation (Yoshikawa, 1988), whereas the United States has had over 200 years to adapt to a changing society.

The Past in the United States

In Colonial days, the United States was a traditional agricultural society and the male heads of families owned and controlled their land, which gave them great respect and economic and political power - in other words, status. Older men in particular, had the ability to exercise control over their environment, whether in society at large, or in the home. Sons inherited property only after their fathers' death, thus, there were good financial reasons for giving the head of the family respect and obedience. Older men were awarded high positions in their communities, including political office. Senior status in general was honored, respected and celebrated. It might be inferred from the fashions of the time, that this status was sought after, since powdered wigs were worn by young and old (Barrow & Smith, 1983).

After the Revolution, the status of the elderly underwent great change. Hierarchical principles gave way to the principle of equality (Fischer, 1977). Society gradually became more urbanized with the increase in industrialization. Many young people escaped parental control and dependence on farming, by moving to the cities and finding work there. There was a growing societal emphasis on youth and productivity, resulting in the beginning of gerontophobia. Traditional values emphasizing the importance of family and land gave way to values of independence, youth and opportunity. As a result, "the elderly often became victims (self-victims as well as social victims) of prevailing attitudes" (Barrow & Smith, 1983, p.5).

While gerontophobic attitudes are still in evidence today, some changes are taking place. Largely due to pressures from the increasing elderly population itself, there are more legal, political and social concerns being expressed and used as a basis for action. For example, Social Security benefits, designed to supplement the income of older retired people, may be applied for from the age of 62. In addition, many social programs designed to assist elderly people, such as housing facilities and senior citizen discounts at stores, apply at age 55, 60, or 65.

The Past in Japan

Up until the end of World War II, Japanese society closely resembled that of the United States in Colonial times. That is to say that the male head of the household had control of family assets and property, as well as the responsibility to care for the rest of the family, including daughters-in-law, grandchildren, unmarried sisters, younger children, etc. In fact, this was mandated by law in Japan until 1946 (Arichi, 1977). Inheritance was by the eldest son, who also inherited the care of the extended family. Widows, younger children and all other members of the family were required to defer to the head of the household in all matters, including marriage. This Family Law was repealed by the Japanese government in 1946. Women and all children now may share in the inheritance equally. However, people do not always change their attitudes as quickly as laws change, especially when the changes occur as a result of an imposed law, rather than as a result of grass-roots pressures. Thus, operationally, many first born sons still assume the responsibility for the care of their extended families.

Attitudes on Aging in Japan

There tends to be a strict vertical or hierarchical attitude towards older people in Japan, held over from the time when the old Family Law was in effect. For instance, older men generally have higher status than older women, and seniority in business is still of great importance. The Japanese are very sensitive about who is higher or lower in relationships. This can be seen in almost any relationship, such as that between parent and child, teacher and student, and business superior and subordinate. As a result, older people are treated with great respect, even though they may have diminished political or economic power.

In most cases, the elderly in Japan still are honored for their connection to history and traditions. Unlike people in the United States, Japanese people want to live with their elders. In turn, the older people have a sense of value and purpose in their lives. Sixty-nine percent (69%) of Japanese aged people live with their children, in contrast to 13% in the United States.

Furthermore, the typical household in Japan consists of the elderly, one of their children, and grandchildren, while in the United States, only 4% of the elderly live with their grandchildren (Palmore & Maeda, 1985).

Japanese older people are very much involved with caring for grandchildren and in performing household duties as well as having several other roles which give them a sense that they are valued. For example, men who retire from their primary jobs often continue to work in the company, or in other companies, even if at a lower position; 27% of older men help in family businesses, and 19% do the gardening, an important facet of Japanese culture (Palmore & Maeda, 1985).

Perhaps because of their senses of purpose, Japanese people in general seem to have much less fear of aging than their counterparts in the United States. However, there is a major difference when an older person becomes sick or disabled. The Japanese custom has been that the main care of sick or disabled aged parents falls on the wife of the eldest son. Despite changing family laws, there still exists differential sex roles: the husband works outside the home and the wife stays at home and is responsible for the care of the house and those within it (Kamiko & Masuda, 1981). As a consequence, almost all the care of older people is considered as women's work.

One change in Japanese society that is having great effect on the prevailing attitudes toward older people is brought about by the rapid expansion of Japanese businesses throughout the world. Businessmen are often transferred to other cities or countries for considerable lengths of time, sometimes separating them from their families. As a result, there have been major changes in the family structure.

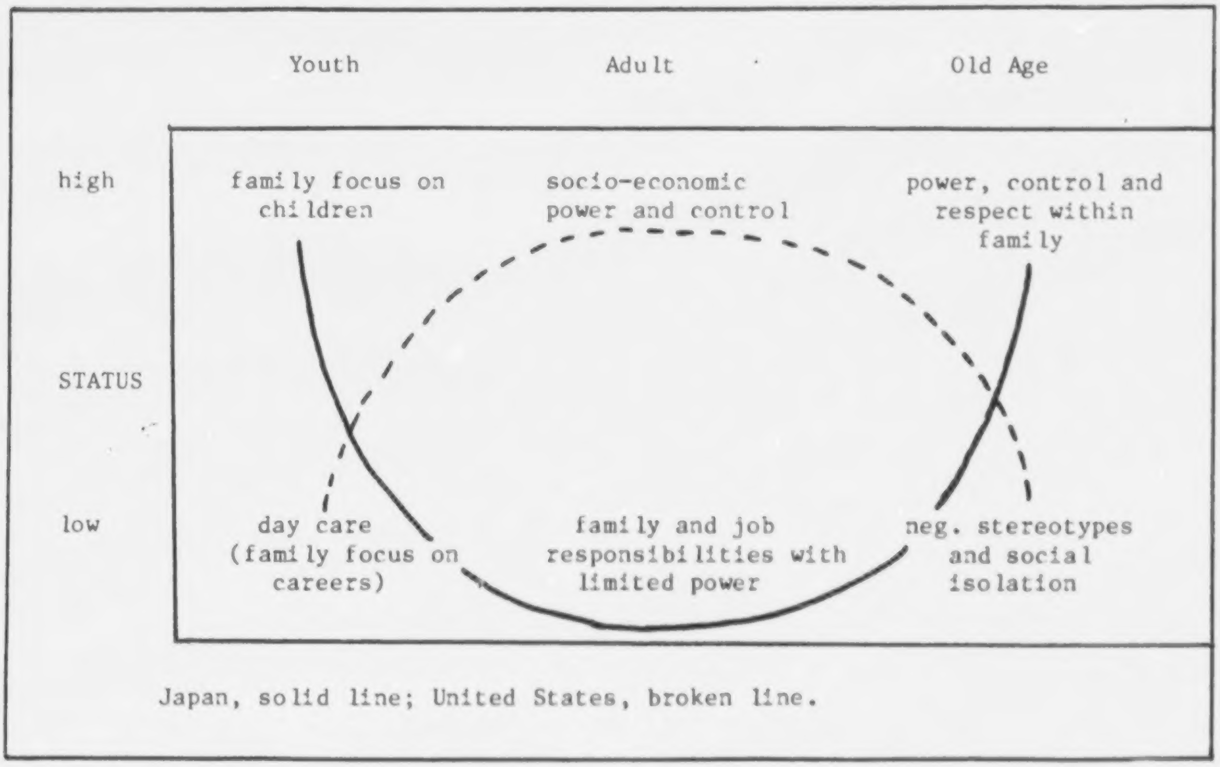
If there are school-age children in the family, and the transfer is within Japan, parents are reluctant to interrupt their children's schooling. Thus the husband/father moves to a new location alone and visits the family fairly frequently, leaving the wife to assume the responsibility for the family. Another situation occurs, however, if the transfer is to another country. In some cases, if the transfer is for more than a year, the nuclear family may leave the extended family and accompany the husband. However, even in these cases, the family is expected to remain behind for the first year, since it is felt that it will take that amount of time for the businessman to learn another language and culture, and to become productive within the new environment.

In the future, as nuclear families separate from their extended families, and women increasingly work outside the home, it will become more difficult to maintain family responsibility for the care of the elderly. These changes may result in severe emotional and financial burdens that can lead to depression in both the elderly themselves and in their caretakers. In some cases, severe depression may lead to suicide.

The suicide rates for men are similar in both Japan and the United States, with the percentages roughly doubling with increased age (Henig, 1981; Sekai, 1987). While the rate of suicide for women in Japan is usually about half that of men, there is a remarkable increase in female suicides after the age of 65, suggesting that contrary to men, women may have difficulty in finding caretakers. It is important to note in this context, that 70% of the people aged 65 and older who commit suicide in Japan are suffering from illness (Sekai, 1987). As is universally true, women in Japan generally outlive men.

The situation regarding suicide is different in the United States. This is especially so for older men who appear to have lost their professional identities in retirement as well as having experienced the loss of their spouses. While the figures in male suicide roughly correspond to those in Japan, the figures for women's suicide in the United States are negligible (Henig, 1981). This may be due in part to women participating in the extensive social programs that are available for the elderly in the United States.

Despite the somewhat negative picture portrayed by the suicide rates, old people in Japan are usually treated with respect and enjoy high status among the people. Figure I shows the significant difference between the attitudes and status of the aged in Japan and the United States.



Japan, solid line; United States, broken line.

Figure 1: Japanese and United States arc of life (adapted from Benedict, 1946; in Palmore and Maeda, 1985)

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Although minor modification for the Japanese arc might be necessary due to recent social changes, it still reflects the Japanese people's basic ideas about life and status and gives a fine comparison with attitudes in the United States. In Japan, the high status of children and infants comes about because children generally are the center of the family. Family members refer to themselves in relation to the children; for instance, a husband often calls his wife "mother" and his own father and mother will be called "grandfather" and "grandmother" instead of by their own names.

However, as Japanese men become adults, they assume a regimented life filled with responsibility and many obligations. They are considered to have done their duty by the time they retire, and their children are all married and settled down. They can now be praised for what they have accomplished, and have no further tasks. They can enjoy their old age in safety, as long as they have children who will provide food, shelter and care. It is here that there will be the greatest change in the figure above, since with the social changes that are occurring in Japan, aged people are now less secure and may not be able to rely on their children.

Attitudes on Aging in the United States

In contrast to the generally high status awarded to the elderly in Japan, the elderly in the United States are regarded more negatively. There seems to be a great fear of the aging process in the United States. This may be due to the negative stereotypes of old people as well as the cultural emphasis on youth and independence. Barrow and Smith (1983) write that aging is "typically regarded as a time of physical ugliness, sadness and sorrow, a time of physical uselessness, loneliness, boredom and poverty" (p. 10). When some college students were asked to write down the first words that came to mind when thinking of old people, they responded with words like "wrinkled, unattractive, helpless, feeble, stooped", etc. Even television commercials stress products that make the skin look younger, cover up the gray, and invigorate "tired blood".

Old people historically have not been considered to be consumers in the United States, although this is changing. Television marketing is primarily aimed at teenagers and young marrieds, the upwardly mobile. There is such a strong emphasis on youth and beauty for women, that old women, if they are shown at all, are apt to be portrayed as nosy, obnoxious, or weak and dependent. However, many silver- haired, wrinkled men are shown as powerful and attractive (Davis, 1980).

Sontag points out that "Women become sexually ineligible much earlier than men do ... for most women, aging means a ... process of gradual sexual disqualification" (1975, p. 34). Unfortunately, this stereotyping can become a self-fulfilling prophecy. This sexual invisibility may also apply to women in Japan, where derogatory statements are made which underline the concept of women being asexual, once past child-bearing years.

Tragically, even the United States Congress supports stereotypes of the elderly. Lubomudrov (1987) reported both positive and negative stereotypes that appeared in the Congressional Record of a vote on a Social Security proposal. There were a total of 913 negative stereotypes and only 193 positive stereotypes entered into the Record. The stereotypes represented popular misconceptions about the aged, including such statements as most older people are: poor, frail or in poor health; impotent politically; mentally slow; forgetful; not able to learn; accident prone; isolated; lonely; inadequate; and confined to nursing homes, etc. (Barrow & Smith, 1983; Davis, 1980; Lubomudrov, 1987; Ray et al, 1987). It is no wonder that people in the United States are afraid of growing old if that is what they believe they have to look forward to for themselves.

A major problem for the aged in the United States is the loss of their normative role in life (Drewery, 1979). While re-marriage is acceptable, unlike Japan, where re-marriage is frowned upon, the unequal sex ratio forces the majority of older women to be without sexual partners. Widows may have lost some of their connection with other people through social isolation and relocation. Old widowed persons must decide where to live: alone; with a child; in a retirement facility; or if in poor health, in a nursing facility. It is interesting to note that only 5% of all people aged 65 and older lived in nursing homes in 1987 (AARP, 1988).

Historically, people in the United States pride themselves on their independence, and becoming dependent on others, even their own children, can be emotionally painful as well as being a strain on the child's family both economically and emotionally. This is complicated by men and women no longer having jobs, since early and final retirement is the norm.

The picture is not entirely negative, however. In the United States there are programs that provide choices for older people. There are a variety of housing options, from federally-funded housing for the elderly to private retirement "villages". Even though the majority of older people choose not to live with their children, an attitude that is in sharp contrast to that in Japan, most of the elders in the United States do live within an hour's drive of their children. Health care for the elderly is partially funded by Medicare, and the health of old people is generally good. Some older people are able to stay in their homes with the help of programs such as "Meals on Wheels" and part-time homemaker services. The AARP is a powerful political lobby that has, through its many programs, provided a foundation for improved self concepts for the elderly. There are agencies such as Foster Grandparents, where older people develop nuturing relationships with children and the Service Corps of Retired Executives (SCORE) where retired businessmen make themselves available to new enterprises, giving others the benefit of their experience. In addition, there are social clubs and free transportation to shops, medical facilities and places of entertainment. Many retirement and nursing homes allow their residents to come and go as they wish, as long as health allows. In short, older people in the United States do not have to be "put on the shelf", they may remain active and contributing participants in community life, if they wish. However, too many older people still believe the negative stereotypes and attitudes about old age, and, in effect, put themselves "on the shelf".

Fortunately, thanks to role models such as Pope John XXIII, Helen Hayes, Ghandi, Mother Theresa, Maggie Kuhn and many others, attitudes toward aging are gradually changing in the United States. Recently, a 71 year old woman was elected constable in a Massachusetts community. A 79 year old man trained the horse that won the Kentucky Derby. Older people, women especially, are returning to school. One 85 year old woman recently earned her bachelor's degree with high honors. Ninety-three year old humorist George Burns recently released a "fitness" video tape. While much of the tape contains jokes about himself, it does describe in great detail his active life style. His closing remarks on the tape are, "Like I always say, you can't help getting older, but you don't have to get old" (Burns, 1989).

Implications for Counseling

Counselors in Japan are faced with a great challenge. While all older people are coping with rapid changes in their lives, Japanese people are having to adapt to extremely dramatic sociological changes. Most of the Japanese elderly still want to live with their oldest sons and daughters-in-law, despite the increase in children moving away from the extended family and the increase in women working outside the home (Palmore & Maeda, 1985). Industrialization and Westernization seem to be proceeding at a rapid pace in Japan, leading to an emphasis on youth, productivity, efficiency and speed. This, in turn, can lead to a lowering of status and lack of respect for old people. This social trend is exacerbated by changes in the employment systems that place less value on seniority. Also, families have difficulty in maintaining themselves when sons are required to relocate.

With the breaking down of the traditional family structure, social programs will become increasingly necessary in Japan. The percentage of old people is predicted to increase considerably in the near future (Yamane, 1984). Old people who are without their families are going to need assistance. Differences in culture, values and history may deter Japan from modeling their social programs on those of other nations, but Japan does need to develop programs and support systems in order to provide for those affected by social change. Old people who are separated from their families need physical support in the form of health care, housing, etc., as well as emotional support.

Old people have encountered many changes and losses in their lives, such as losses of spouses, friends and work role identities. In addition, they have seen tremendous changes in technology that may not have been fully explained to them and thus are frightening. Their value systems often are based on different mores, resulting in conflict with current societal values. Finally, they may be unable physically, or through a lack of awareness, to obtain services that are available to the elderly.

Counselors are not immune to agism. Given the increasing numbers of old people in the population, counselors will be called upon to work with old people and their families even more in the future. Therefore, it is vital that counselors who do work with older people become aware of their own attitudes and biases about the aging process.

This is particularly important where agist attitudes prevail not only in the society at large, but also in the helping professions. For instance, relatively few medical doctors choose the field of gerontology (Henig, 1981). Older people react differently to many medications, and often an illness can lead to temporary symptoms of dissociation, delirium, even dementia. In some cases, if left untreated, these symptoms may themselves ultimately lead to permanent brain damage (Albert, 1981), Old people, especially if living alone, may not be able to provide adequate nutrition for themselves. This in itself, without intervention, may lead to mental and physical impairments that could become permanent. Counselors need to be informed about these mental and physical effects and be prepared to intervene when necessary.

"Counseling is not age related" (Gross, 1988, p.3). Principles of counseling apply to all ages. The challenge to counselors who work with the aged is to become aware of the aging process, and to recognize the special needs of older clients. In some cases, the counselors need to become active advocates for their older clients in order to help them deal with bureaucracies and to help them locate and use existing resources in the community. It may be necessary for the counselors to make the initial contact with particular service agencies on behalf of their clients. As Gross (1988) points out, the fact that the counselor is able to get the client a doctor's appointment, or meals-on-wheels, can do much to remove or reduce the natural distrust of many older people to counseling.

In summary, counselors working with aged clients should: 1) be aware of their own attitudes toward the aging process; 2) be aware of the physiological, psychological and social changes that occur with aging; 3) be aware of the resources available in the community for the clients and for their families; 4) be willing to act as advocates for their clients in obtaining help from those resources; 5) be ready to be actively involved with their clients' daily lives, paying attention to such details as medications, diet, family conflicts, etc.; 6) be able to accept different values that may be held by their clients; and 7) be willing to seek further education, if necessary, in order to better understand the aging process.

SEXUAL COUNSELING-SETTING A PRECEDENT FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

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It is our vision that in the 21st century sexual counseling will be a routine part of every counselor's interaction with clients. To deny our sexual selves is to negate sexuality as a part of healthy living from birth to death. It is the responsibility of every counselor to extend an invitation to discuss sexual issues in the counseling session. We cannot afford to wait until clients introduce sexual concerns. Nor can we afford to let other professionals set the precedent of speaking openly and honestly about sexuality. For it is counselors who are on the front lines. We are in the schools, community agencies, universities, community colleges, mental health clinics, and correctional settings. We are in a position to contribute to the shaping of human sexuality for the 21st century by actively working to seek a balance between the paradox of cultural expectations and individual freedom.

Sexuality goes beyond basic biological functioning to incorporate the values, beliefs, attitudes, taboos, and customs that are a part of each particular society. Throughout history individuals as representative of subcultures within societies, have held strong and often conflicting opinions about sexual behavior. Thus, sexual behaviors are frequently viewed as right or wrong, appropriate or inappropriate, and moral or immoral. Since sexuality is a sensitive and controversial topic in most parts of the world, counselors often do not address sexual issues with clients even when it is a necessary part of the counseling process.

Despite this silence about sexuality, 21st century social issues such as sexually transmitted diseases, sexual abuse, sexual dysfunction, and increased medical technology are altering individual and societal views of sexuality. In addition, public awareness about sexual matters has been increased by the consequences of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). Today, people are more willing to consider professional help for sexual issues because they know that the risk of failing to address these concerns is extremely high, and possibly fatal. In seeking help about sexual problems the public believes that school and agency counselors, by virtue of their professional status, already have knowledge of and are comfortable with the subject of sexuality (Tanner, 1974).

Most alarming to us is the information that counselors historically have not been trained in sexual counseling and are not currently being trained. Consequently, counselors have inadequate skills and are afraid or incapable of assisting clients with sexual problems. Over ten years ago, an exploratory study showed that counseling students, when compared to graduate students in psychology and social work, ranked last in having accurate sexual knowledge or in expressing liberal sexual attitudes (Manes, 1978). A recent survey also revealed that the curricula of counseling programs in the United States has not addressed this deficit in counselors' training (Gray, Cummins, Johnson & Mason, 1989). According to the study, only 44% of 270 counselor education programs in the United States offered a class in human sexuality and, of those, only 20% required the course.

As early as 1976 one researcher noted that it is unrealistic to expect counselors to have knowledge of and skills in sexual counseling if counselor education programs do not offer training in sexuality (McConnell, 1976). His contention was that, even though counselors have proven themselves competent in other areas of counseling, lack of sexual training has raised the questions of why counselor educators are ignoring this dimension in clients. We, as counselor educators, feel a strong need to respond by setting a new precedent for the 21st century. We believe that it is crucial to have open discussion about the need for sexual curricula in the profession of counseling. Counselors must stop avoiding responsibility and face the realities and challenges posed by AIDS and other sexual concerns in today's world.

This paper is designed to help the counselor recognize three significant issues which affect the directions of sexual counseling. Special attention is paid to the pandemic of AIDS, advances in biomedical technology, and to some cultural perspectives about sexual functioning. A sexual counseling model is introduced that can be used by the counselor to address a variety of client issues such as sexual decision making, sexual enhancement, and sexual communication in a changing world.

CONTEMPORARY SEXUAL ISSUES

AIDS

As we move toward the 21st Century one new issue related to sexual behavior is the disease of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). AIDS, first identified in 1981, is a usually fatal disease for which there is no known cure or immunization. AIDS is believed to be caused by human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). The pervasiveness of the disease and the current lack of curative treatment make AIDS the most serious pandemic of the past 50 years (Quinn, Mann, Curran, & Piot, 1986). AIDS is now recognized as a global health problem, with 74 countries reporting the disease (Quinn et al., 1986). The United States Center for Disease Control estimates that by 1991 there will be at least 270,000 AIDS cases worldwide. However, Halfden Mahler, director-general of the World Health Organization (WHO) predicted that "one hundred million people will be infected with AIDS within ten years of its discovery" (McLaughlin, 1989, p. 15). More shocking are the estimates of the number of HIV-positive individuals worldwide who are currently asymptomatic which range from 1 to 10 million (McLaughlin, 1989).

The psychological and social implications for our world and our profession are far-reaching. One would expect that such a catastrophic disease, with the monumental implications for mental health care, would have elicited a varied and vigorous response from counselors (House, Gray & Tyler, 1989). However, as noted in a recent editorial in the leading counseling newspaper in the United States, the professional organizations of counseling and its members have "passed the responsibility of taking a leadership role in fighting AIDS to other groups" (Gray, 1988, p. 9). AIDS has been a focus of medical research and literature, but comparatively little has been published in counseling journals. The belated and hesitant response by the counseling profession mirrors the response of society in general. Like most people counselors are unprepared, unskilled, and uncomfortable addressing the core issues raised by AIDS: sexual conduct, homophobia, serious illness, death, and living with the dying and grieving. Since a primary means of AIDS transmission is through particular sexual behaviors, the counselor's lack of training and inability to discuss sexual issues with clients has potentially fatal consequences.

In addition, the slow response to AIDS by counselors and society at large may be because the disease "arouses fears that reveal deeper social and cultural anxieties about the disease, its transmissibility, and its victims" (Brandt, 1988, p. 153). People with AIDS (PWAs) are stigmatized by societies worldwide because AIDS is a deadly disease which is neither understood nor controlled.. In the United States, AIDS exists primarily in gay men and intravenous (IV) drug users which are both groups that are not totally accepted by general society. The subsequent societal response has been colored with moral indictment, including the frequent assertion that AIDS is a retribution for violations of a prescribed moral order (Brandt, 1988).

Due to specific sexual behaviors with multiple partners, gay men in the United States and other Western industrialized countries were initially hardest hit by the disease. Thus, homophobia became intertwined with the first responses to AIDS. Homophobia has been defined as a fear, dread, or loathing of individuals who are perceived as gay (Weinberg, 1973). This phobic or negative response can be seen on an individual or societal level. Individually it includes stereotyping about gays and lesbians, telling "fag" jokes, or listening to such jokes without comment. Examples of societal homophobia include discrimination in employment and housing, banishment from certain religions and lack of legal recognition of gay relationships. This prejudice has also been evident in some AIDS policies that require mandatory HIV testing of those perceived to be gay.

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Counselors are in a pivotal position to improve the care available to those who have AIDS as well as the care available to those who are at risk, by acting as agents of change in schools, churches, community agencies, government programs, treatment centers, and private practice. Most people must now make difficult choices as they face new issues of limited sexual behavior, loss, and definition of self versus society. Counselors, as members of a helping profession, can assist with these struggles by becoming knowledgeable and competent in a number of roles, some of which may be new and which may sometimes involve multiple responsibilities (Gray & House, 1989). Responsibilities, in relation to AIDS, are divided into three categories: therapist, educator, and community liaison. We believe counselors in the 21st century must accept the challenge to expand their ideas of what "counseling" consists of, through undertaking these new roles.

TECHNOLOGY

Medical technology developed in the past century has brought about drastic changes in sexual behavior. Masters, Johnson & Kolodny (1986) write that, "Advances in reproductive biotechnology have suddenly thrust us into a world previously seen only in science fiction novels and other futuristic writings" (pg. 558). One author notes that current professional periodicals now contain futuristic articles entitled: "Embyro Cyropreservation - A Method To Improve Results Of Invitrofertilization Embyro Transfer"; "The Future of Male Birth Control"; "Sexual Counseling for the Elderly Patient After Myrocardio Infarction; New Surgical Techniques For Penile Vascular Incompetence"; and, "New Drug Known As Ru-486 May Make Abortions Obsolete" (Gray, 1987).

These new directions give people more options for sexual functioning than ever before. At the same time these medical advances often conflict with existing societal expectations regarding the acceptable expression of sexual behavior. In many cultures sexuality is viewed as private, personal and functional. "Conservative views of sexuality narrow the range of permissible sexual practices, thereby condemning virtually all sex except that which leads to procreation in marriage" (Blumenfeld & Raymond, 1988, pg. 67). It is difficult for individuals to translate futuristic biomedical concepts into personal value systems and to counter conflicting traditions. Although people may receive medical information from their physicians, frequently they have no one to talk with about their fears, questions and concerns about how these medical advances affect their values and beliefs.

Eugenics and genetic engineering are a part of today's world and an inescapable part of the future. However, with thousands of years of historical and cultural standards and only thirty years of advanced technology, it is certain that people living in the 21st century will need assistance from counselors as they struggle to address the ethical implications attached to this technology.

For example, when speaking about adult sexual behavior in Japan one author commented that,

> Advances in medical and biological knowledge, such as birth control and artificial insemination, have liberated marriage from biological sex, hitherto inseparable from sexual reproduction, and this is a major factor promoting changes in the content of marriage. From one point of view this increases the element of love between married people and strengthens the monogamous character of marriage in modern society. On the other hand, it upsets the stability of the conventional monogamous institutional system from within, promoting the dissolution of formal marriage and the monogamous framework, which inevitably results in an increase in the divorce rate. The rapid increase in divorce in present-day Japan indicates that over the last 20 years Japanese society has begun to approach the level of the mature industrial societies in Europe and North America (Asayama, 1975, p. 110).

In a historical survey of various love styles and their social causes from the fourth century B.C. through the 20th century, Clanton (1987) identifies social causes as the primary influence of sexual practices. He believes that the major social cause of the 1960's and 1970's sexual revolution was the impact of technology on mass society. "The automobile, the motion picture, and the birth control pill are among the products of industrial society which have facilitated the liberalization of sexual rules and gender roles" (Clanton, 1987, p. 309). We project that people will experience dissonance until the gap between emotions and technology is addressed.

CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES

Sexuality is seen as important in all cultures including those which tend to restrict sexual expression. Cultures value sexuality because it not only meets reproductive needs but also meets physical gratification and intimacy needs of humankind (Reiss, 1986). However, "There are wide variations in the kinds of sexual behaviors that are forbidden, tolerated, or encouraged in various cultures" (Kelly, 1988, p. 179). Due to the wide variations of cultural acceptability no one is exempt from cultural influence in the development of sexual attitudes, beliefs and behaviors. Sexuality is indeed learned in a societal context.

Basow (1986) identified seven ways that cultures express sexual behavior differently.

1. the amount of sexual play permitted between children
2. the permissibility of intercourse before marriage
3. the latitude of sexual activity after marriage
4. the importance attached to sexual activity
5. the extent to which sexual desire is seen as dangerous
6. the acceptance of homosexuality
7. gender differences in sexual behavior

Views of these seven areas differ not only between cultures (intercultural relativity) but also within a culture (intracultural relativity). It is noteworthy to contrast intercultural perspectives of various kinds of sexual activity. For example, kissing is not a universal expression of intimacy and in some cultures is seen as distasteful due to the possibility of ingesting another person's saliva (Opler, 1969). It is also significant to compare the interrelationship between marriage and sexuality from a cross-cultural perspective. "Sex cannot always be equated with marriage because within many societies a range of extramarital sexual practice is part of normal behavior (e.g. premarital activity, concubinage, ceremonial sexual behavior, prostitution, or sexual practice outside of otherwise exclusive relationships)" (Davis & Whitten, 1987, p. 74). In some cultures actual or simulated intercourse is a meaningful part of initiation rites and religious ceremonies. These activities serve as public instruction of sexual conduct (Davis & Whitten, 1987). In direct contrast, rites and ceremonies in most Western cultures do not include explicit sexual elements.

As sexual appropriateness varies from culture to culture so does the definition of sexual deviance. By comparison with other cultures, Western countries have always been extremely concerned about sexual norms and variation (Benedict, 1939). In the United States sexual variations have become emotionally laden topics that often fail to take into account other cultural perspectives. For example, homosexual behavior has been prevalent in all parts of the world throughout history. Whether it is labeled deviant depends on the culture and the time in history. Homosexuality is tolerated in the Chinese culture as long as it is engaged in by adults.

> There are no moral or religious sanctions against homosexuality. The practice has only been denounced when a partner abused the emotional ties or when it led to criminal acts. According to Taoist beliefs, male homosexuality, because it is a relationship between two yang elements, is considered not harmful to health (Lieh-Mak, O'Hoy, & Luk, 1983, p.21).

An example of intracultural relativity in the United States, is the polarization of views about homosexuality. Some individuals are supportive and believe that homosexuality is an acceptable sexual life style while other individuals persecute, discriminate against and label homosexuals as deviant. This hostility is reflected in the letters to the editor of the *San Francisco Examiner* on June 18, 1989, following a sixteen-part series on being "Gay in America". Comments in the various letters were: "It's not gay to be homosexual, it's disgusting, loathsome and perverted!"; "You can print all the gay-lesbian articles you want, but those of us in mainstream America who find the sordid sexual practices of gays and lesbians repugnant will never change our minds about these deviates."; and "Long live gay bashers!" (p. 14).

Another example of intracultural relativity is the wide difference of opinion between the various religions within one culture about acceptable sexual behavior before marriage. Some conservative religions view sexual experimentation in adolescence as strictly prohibitive and teach that sex must be saved for marriage. Youngsters who are discovered in sexual activities are often subjected to harsh punishments and humiliations (Kaplan, 1974); whereas, religious faiths with a more liberal view do not discourage teenagers who choose to experiment sexually within a responsible framework.

It is clear that cultural norms and standards influence sexual behavior. The culture not only influences behaviors of individuals belonging to the culture, but also the societal view of sexual behavior. We believe that it is impossible for counselors to completely escape their own cultural bias during sexual counseling. However, if counselors recognize the impact of prevalent sexual mores on the individual functioning of their clients and have information about various cultural views of sexuality both from an intercultural and intracultural perspective, then they can develop effective counseling and referral processes. Truly, counselors must believe that there is not one right sexual prescription for all people in order to be professional when working with clients.

A SEXUAL COUNSELING MODEL

Counselors need a clear sexual counseling framework in addition to their own theoretical counseling orientation. We believe that one useful framework is a model that utilizes three distinct components. The first step is to increase the sexual comfort of the client through counselor sexual comfort. The second goal is to contribute to the client's accurate sexual knowledge. A third step is to assist clients in understanding their values and how these values affect the client's decision-making processes. Fourth, the counselor helps clients implement new behaviors based on accurate knowledge and a new understanding of values.

COUNSELOR COMFORT

Individuals in many societies, and especially in America, do not often receive positive messages about sexuality within their family structure (Calderone & Johnson, 1981). Typical messages received from parents are: 'Don't ask about sex', 'Don't talk about sex', or 'Don't be sexual'. The messages result in the individual not having permission to discuss sexual issues with anyone. Counselors are not exempt from such messages and consequently are frequently uncomfortable talking about sex. This can lead to an ineffective or destructive counseling relationship even though accurate content information is being exchanged. Counselor comfort when working with sexual issues is as important as accurate knowledge and strong therapeutic skills. It is a precursor to the use of any sexual counseling model.

Becoming comfortable with sexual issues is an on-going process. In order to work with specific sexual behaviors, the counselor must consciously begin the process of increasing his or her own sexual comfort and self-understanding (Gray & House, 1989). This journey begins by acknowledging the following factors which are likely to contribute to physical, mental or emotional constraint in the role of sexual counselor:

1. Lack of an explicit sexual vocabulary.
2. Limited experience in talking about sex.
3. Identification of personal sexual issues.
4. Interfering sexual values and biases.
5. Inaccurate sexual knowledge.

The counselor's behavior is also affected by lack of a common sexual language and by the emotional impact of vocabulary. In Western cultures, many people are uncomfortable using or hearing words like penis, anus, scrotum, clitoris, nipple, and foreskin. In contrast, these same people generally experience no discomfort with the words for other parts of the body like elbow, knee, nose, ear or chin because these words carry little or no emotional impact. Communication about sexual issues is also impaired by confusion which arises from the imprecise nature of language. For example, the term 'love-making' to some Americans may mean vaginal-penile intercourse and to others it may mean heavy petting.

The professional who is embarrassed or who lacks appropriate language skills, may inadvertently sabotage sexual counseling (Gray & House, 1989). This is apparent in counselors who refers to the vagina as 'it', reinforcing the idea that female genitalia are so dirty and shameful that they are unworthy of a name. Similarly, counselors who use only a formal medical language may contribute to a communication problem with a client who does not understand or is alienated by the terminology. On the other hand, some counselors have difficulty communicating with the client whose sexual vocabulary is limited to slang or street language. Counselors must reach out to clients they work with through modeling the use of appropriate sexual language and also accepting all forms of clients communication about sexual issues. This process creates permission and invites clients to speak about personal sexual concerns.

SEXUAL KNOWLEDGE

It is inappropriate for counselosr to make assumptions about the client's sexual knowledge base because often people have significant gaps in factual information about sex. Few will have studied sex in any systematic way. Knowledge is generally experiential and limited to a subculture in their society. Gaps in the client's sexual knowledge contribute to discomfort and are often detrimental when discussing sexual issues. Using some type of sexual knowledge assessment technique is essential when working with clients. The knowledge assessment technique must reflect that learning about sexuality is an ongoing discovery process and the technique must be developmentally appropriate. It is with accurate knowledge about sexuality that people can begin to explore options and make changes in sexual behaviors.

'Building Genitalia', a technique that we have adapted to assess accurate sexual knowledge of American clients (Gray & House, 1989), was originally included in a sex education curriculum designed by Calderwood (1983). Clients are asked to build models of the male and female genitalia by using materials like paper, tape, balloons, string, scissors, pencils, tennis balls, light bulbs, and small toys. They are then asked to label the models with identified female and male genitalia terms. Copies of accurate diagrams of female and male sex organs are provided and clients are then encouraged to rearrange their own three dimensional model, if necessary. This exercise enables clients to gain accurate information about sexual anatomy in a supportive and safe atmosphere.

VALUES AND DECISION-MAKING

It is important for clients to understand the sexual value system in their culture so they can consciously choose which of these values they would like to accept or reject as an adult. One way of doing this is to use exercises with clients which identify values related to sexuality and which offer an opportunity to discuss feelings and belief systems associated with the values.

'Abigail and Gregory' is one such exercise that has been used effectively by sexual educators in the United States since the 1960's. The story can be modified and embellished to reflect the spontaneity of the storyteller and specific clients.

'Abigail and Gregory' Directions

This is a story of Abigail, Gregory and three other people . At the end of the story, I would like you to decide which person is the "best" person and which is the "worst" person based on characteristics of the people you value. There is no right answer to this question of which person you think is "best" or "worst". Instead, it is important to look at which beliefs helped you come to your decision and we will spend time talking about different perspectives at the end of the story.

Abigail and Gregory love each other very much and made a promise to one another not to have sexual intercourse with any other person. They live on the opposite side of a very wide and rampaging river which has only one bridge across it. Ferocious and people-eating crocodiles live in the river. One day, a violent storm appears and the bridge is washed away. Days pass. Months pass. Abigail and Gregory yearn to be with one another but they have no way to get across the river.

Finally, Captain John comes up the river in a sturdy boat. Abigail is delighted and flags him down to asks him if he will take her across the river to Gregory. Captain John says he would be glad to take her across the river if she will have sexual intercourse with him. Quandary, quandary, quandary! Abigail goes to her friend Susan and asks her what she should do. Susan says, "I'm sorry but you have to decide for yourself". After much deliberation, Abigail decides to have sexual intercourse with Captain John and true to his word he takes her across the river. Gregory and Abigail are now overjoyed to be together. Gregory asks Abigail how she managed to get across the river and Abigail tells the truth. Gregory, with outrage, says "You cheap wench! I never want to see you again!!" Abigail is heartbroken and tells her friend Michael what has happened. Michael is angry that Gregory has rejected Abigail and physically attacks him. This is the end of the story.

Clients are asked to react to the story by identifying what they value about each character. It is important for counselors to encourage clients to examine the personal values and cultural messages behind their reactions and not get sidetracked into clarification of story content. As a result of the discussion clients have a greater understanding of value differences and more clarity of what is important to them personally.

A second exercise which helps clients with values and decision-making processes is the writing of a personal sexual developmental history. This exercise provides opportunities to link current values with past developmental events, familial value systems and societal expectations. Some of the critical developmental tasks which clients are encouraged to identify include: past learning about similarities and differences between sexes, early knowledge of reproduction and the birth process, body exploration during childhood, first intercourse experience, views of homosexuality, and expression of sexual affection in the family of origin. Reaction to the personal sexual history are discussed and processed in counseling sessions.

BEHAVIOR

One of the primary goals of a counselor is to help clients change and thus reach a healthy balance between cultural expectations and individual needs and wants. However, the professional must understand that accurate sexual information does not guarantee behavioral change. It is important to provide clients with the opportunity to practice through role-playing, the operationalizing of new information. Clients might role play an anticipated discussion with a prospective sexual partner. For example, the role-play could be about the use of a condom which conflicts with the cultural standards that exist for at least one of the partners. The counselor would give feedback to the client about the rehearsal and suggest ways to enhance communication taking into consideration cultural factors. During these role-plays it is imperative that the counselor be sensitive to the difficulty of changing behavioral patterns steeped in societal expectations.

CONCLUSION

As counselors we need to contribute to creating a healthy sexuality for all people in the world. First, we must establish a firm premise that there is not one normative sexual prescription for every being in this world and that there is indeed room for variation of sexual practices. We must recognize that sexual behaviors and attitudes are relative to the socio-political and religious-political milieu that exist both inter and intraculturally. Yet, we must also recognize that there are constructs which are universal when defining healthy sexuality. Can a vision of healthy sexuality for all people incorporate sexual values from past and current cultures that enhance human worth and dignity? We believe that healthy sexuality is fostered by societies which are constantly growing through the nurturing of its people physically, psychologically and spiritually. It is critical to provide sexual information to every woman, man and child so they have the opportunity to understand the basic elements of sexuality. With accurate knowledge true sexual decision-making can take place. Respect for individual freedom of each person in relation to and separate from cultural expectations must be present as well.

Sexual counseling is about all of us and our lives. It is about the health of today's society and our children's future health. We, as counselors, can no longer afford to remain passive, and not address sexual counseling issues. If not now, when?

THE CHILDREN IN HONG KONG - A HURRIED GENERATION

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> *"How can we help children acquire the toughness needed to manage in a harsh world and yet retain their basic humanity?"*
>
> \- Lazarus (1986)

1. INTRODUCTION

The growth hurrying phenomenon of children is common in affluent countries, like Singapore,Taiwan and the United States of America. Peters (1988) reported that in Singapore, childhood is slipping by fast in the drudgery of study for many of the island republic's school children. A child has to stay up at night to finish his homework, having already spent the afternoon with private tutors and at music, speech and art classes and having swimming lessons. In Taiwan, Chung (1987) suggested that apart from drug addiction and alcoholism, in areas like prematureness, psychological illness, suicide and depression, Taiwan children bears a lot of similarities as its American counterparts. But in terms of parental expectation and academic demands, Taiwan kids face even greater pressure. He agreed that the child's psychological stress originates from the family. Parents, by making unrealistic demands on the child's achievement and hastening his cognitive development are putting extra pressure on the child. Elkind (1986) pointed out that in the United States, Children seemed to have too much pressure to achieve, to succeed and to please. They are under a new pressure to grow up. They are pushed in their early years toward many different types of achievement and exposed to experiences that tax their adaptive capacity.

Statistics show that Hong Kong children face a similar situation. A study by the Boys' & Girls' Clubs Association of Hong Kong(BGCA) (1987) showed that 73% of the children thought that it was "difficult" to meet parents' demand on academic performance; 52% "worried" about unable to meet parents' demand; 60% were "not satisfied" with their own academic result. In another study (Central Committee on Youth 1988), 43% of the children age 10-15 indicated that they were under pressure.

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One of the sources of children's stress may have originated from the family. In fact, the social and family structure, and the political situation of Hong Kong make it a stressful place for people, both parents and children, to live in.

Like other industrialized societies, families in Hong Kong have the following common characteristics: (1) Quite a proportion of the families are dual career in nature, the study by BGCA (1987) indicated that 51% of the families had working mothers. Quite against the traditional Chinese idea of collectivism, small, nuclear family emerges as a new trend. In 1986, the average number of persons in an average Hong Kong family was 3.7(Census, 1987), and 75.7% of the families were nuclear families(BGCA 1984).

The structural isolation of the nuclear family makes it difficult to obtain social support and guidance from grandparents or relatives, and the parents have to face family responsibilities themselves. A working mother also faces stress and strain from both her family and the workplace.(Lee, 1987).

One feature that makes Hong Kong stands out among affluent cities is its political situation due to the pressing 1997 issue, when Hong Kong will return its sovereignty to the People's Republic of China. Political instability as one of the chronic stressors is being identified by Lazarus (1986). The uncertain political future, aggravated by the recent turmoils in China, is a source of immense stress on Hong Kong people. Stress is being treated as a response to internal or external processes which reach levels that strain physical and psychological capacities to, or beyond, their limit (Basowitz, et al, 1955). The report on fitness and quality of life in adults in Hong Kong (1988) indicated that the stress of living in modern Hong Kong is related to crowding, to pressures in education and employment, and, it is also speculated that it may be due to the political uncertainty in the 1980s and 1990s. As many Hong Kong people are first generation immigrants from mainland China (between 1976 and 1981, total population increase was 690,000, of which 400,000 (58%) were immigrants (Chan, 1986)), there exists a sense of "don't belong" among them, and the 1997 issue further adds to this feeling. Political instability and future uncertainty are the most significant stressors for adults, in particular.

All in all, this shows that Hong Kong adults belong to the high-anxiety group. One way of dealing with anxiety is to displace it. Unfortunately, when they displace their stress onto the next generation, they are jeopardizing the normal and healthy growth of the next generation. Highly anxious parents make inappropriate expectations and demands on their children, and is thus hurrying their children to grow. Elkind (1986) indicated that parents in stress are absorbed with themselves. They become so egocentric that they have little opportunity to consider the needs and interests of their children. They subconsciously adopt some stereotyped child rearing methods pertinent to growth hurrying. Children of stressful parents become stressful too because of the special demands made on them. They hence show responses typical of stressful people, such as, exhibiting free-floating anxiety, type-A behavior etc.

Child rearing patterns set the familial climate, influence the child's emotions and help to determine his personality traits. Matthews(1977) pointed out that from a developmental perspective, type A behavior patterns in childhood and adolescence are the result of certain child-rearing practices. This notion is supported by Compas (1987) and Glass (1977).

The purpose of the present study is to investigate anxiety (emotional state), Type-A behaviors (behavioral characteristics) and invulnerable traits (personality traits) of a typical Hong Kong child. It also aims at examining some of the child rearing practices as perceived by the child, that may be pertinent to growth hurrying of the latter, and the relationship between child rearing patterns and child characteristics.

IMPLICATION IN COUNSELING CHILDREN

Counseling is a borrowed Western discipline. To attain its full effect on the clientele, it must be tailored to suit the cultural and sociological context of the society. Thus, it is also the aim of this paper to point out some new counseling directions and strategies that can benefit Hong Kong children the most.

2. DEFINITION OF TERMS

2.1 HURRYING

Hurried children are forced to take on the physical, psychological, and social trappings of adulthood before they are prepared to deal with them. There are two types of hurrying: A. Developmental hurrying - it occurs whenever we ask children to understand beyond their limits of understanding, to decide beyond their capacity to make decisions, or to act willfully before they have the will to act. B. Energic hurrying - through hurrying, force children are forced to call upon their energy reserves.(D.Elkind, 1986).

2.2 FREE-FLOATING ANXIETY

On discussing how children react to stress, Elkind (1986) pointed out that free-floating anxiety as a manifestation, which is not attached to a specific fear or apprehension. The child feels restless, irritable, and unable to concentrate but is not really sure what the trouble is. It is all-pervasive, as opposed to focal.

2.3 TYPE-A PERSONALITY

Individuals who display Type-A behavior pattern are said to have Type-A personality. The Type-A behavior pattern is defined as "...a characteristic action-emotion complex which is exhibited by those individual who are engaged in a relatively chronic struggle to obtain an unlimited number of poorly defined things from their environment in the shortest period of time possible, and, if necessary, against the opposing efforts ofther things or persons in this same environment. (Friedman, 1969). The major behavioral manifestations of this struggle are competitive achievement-striving, a sense of time urgency, aggressiveness, and hostility (Rosenman, 1978).

3. METHOD

3.1 INSTRUMENT:

A standardized questionnaire was used. Besides personal demographic and family information, the questionnaire was composed of four major parts: A. Child rearing pattern as perceived by children. Statements constructed following Elkind's framework, namely, 5 directions along which parents treat their children: as surrogate self, status symbol, partner, therapists, and conscience. Children were asked to indicate along a four-point scale how they perceived their parents rear them. (1=absolutely not; 2=no; 3=yes; 4=very frequently); B. Children's invulnerable traits. Statements constructed following Elkind's framework along 5 directions: social competence, impression management, self-confidence, independence and achievement. Children were asked to indicate on a 5 point scale ranging from absolutely agree to absolutely disagree. C. Type-A behavior: Cooper's 14 item scale on life-style was translated (Cooper 1988). Children were asked to indicate to what degree each of the items described their life style. D. Anxiety; The Chinese version of Children's Manifested Anxiety Scale (CCMAS)(Yang 1983) was adopted. Children were to indicate whether the items were a true or false description about themselves. E. Other areas covered by the questionnaire were: (i). Child's perception whether their families will immigrate and whether they themselves want to immigrate to other countries, (ii). Child's perception of parent's expectation on their academic attainment, (iii). Difficulties in meeting parents' expectation, (iv). Whether they feel stressful. Children from age 9 to 14 were arranged in groups of around 20, the interviewer read out the instructions, followed by questions, one at a time, to the children, and the children mark down their responses sequentially.

3.2 SUBJECT:

352 children from 15 children centers of the Boys' and Girls'. Clubs Association of Hong Kong (BGCA) in different districts of the Colony were interviewed. The BGCA Children Centers were opened to all children of Hong Kong with age ranging from 6 to 14. Only 309 questionnaires with all question items A to D completed were used. (158 boys and 151 girls). They come from different districts of Hong Kong. 71.5% live in public housing estate and Home Ownership Scheme housing, 27.2% live in private housing, and 1.2% live in squatters.

4. RESULTS:

4.1 PARENT/CHILD INTERACTION

For child rearing patterns, as perceived by the child, the following pattern in descending order of percentage were found. 94.8% of the children indicated that parents were anxious about their academic achievement. Up to 79.9% of them were demanded to take share in housework. 69.5% reported parents making comparison between them and their peers. 67.9 % of the children admitted that their parents mentioned about the others' accomplishments in front of them. 54.7% said that parents expected them to understand parents' hardships and difficulties. 53.7% claimed that they were expected to share in family responsibilities. 47.2% of the children had parents who were anxious about their achievement in music, dancing and sports etc. 41.8% of them reported that parents would talk with them about their own emotions and feelings. Finally, 41.4% reported that parents would talk with them about negative emotions encountered on their own job, and an equal proportion of the children have parents that expected them to agree with their own behaviors.

TABLE 1. PARENT/CHILD INTERACTION (as perceived by the child)

	"YES" & ALWAYS %	"NO" & ABSOLUTELY NOT %
PARENTS ARE:		
1. ANXIOUS ABOUT THE CHILD'S ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT	94.8	5.2
2. DEMAND THE CHILD TO TAKE SHARE IN HOUSEWORK	79.9	20.1
3. COMPARE THE CHILD WITH OTHER CHILDREN	69.5	30.5
4. MENTION ABOUT OTHERS' ACHIEVEMENT TO THE CHILD	67.9	32.1
5. EXPECT THE CHILD TO UNDERSTAND PARENTS' HARDSHIP AND DIFFICULTIES	54.7	45.3
6. EXPECT THE CHILD TO SHARE FAMILY'S RESPONSIBILITIES	53.7	46.3
7. ANXIOUS ABOUT THE CHILD'S ACHIEVEMENT IN MUSIC, SPORTS, DANCING, ETC.	47.2	52.8
8. TALK WITH THE CHILD ABOUT PARENTS' OWN EMOTIONS AND FEELINGS	41.8	58.2
9. TALK WITH THE CHILD ABOUT PARENTS' NEGATIVE EMOTIONS ENCOUNTERED ON THEIR JOBS	41.4	58.6
10. EXPECT THE CHILD TO AGREE WITH PARENTS' BEHAVIOURS	41.4	58.6

This demanding child rearing pattern put a strain on the children as supported by 60.2% of them indicated difficulties in living up to their parents' expectation and 62.8% of them reported some sort of psychological stress. But , on the whole, children were allowed to follow their own interest, only 19.7% indicated otherwise.

This child rearing patterns was related to some personal characteristics of the parents. who were not born in Hong Kong tended to mention more about others' accomplishment in front of their children compared to fathers who were born in Hong Kong, (chi = 7.8445 p=0.005). Working mother expected their children to take more share in family responsibilities than mothers who did not work, (chi = 7.085, p=0.008). Further, they were more inclined to talk about negative emotions encountered on their job with their children, (chi = 15.72, p<0.000), and they shared their feelings with their children (chi = 3.95, p<0.05).

4.2. PERSPECTIVES OF THE HURRIED CHILD:

4.2.1 "INVULNERABLES":

According to Elkind (1986), the hurried child may bear some personality characteristics, which he named the "invulnerable traits". Such characteristics include social competence, impression management, self-confidence, independence and achievement. When these characteristics were investigated among Hong Kong children, the following results were obtained as shown in Table 2. The features exhibited by a majority (over 50%) of the children include: knowing how to make friends (77.3%), readiness to accept challenge (72.5%), having self-confidence (68.9%) at ease with adults (56.6%), and not dissuaded by others (54.7%). Though these children showed "invulnerables" traits like warriors, yet only 29.8% of them admitted themselves as persons with achievements, and only 34.3% regarded themselves as liked by others.

TABLE 2: INVULNERABLE TRAITS

	AGREE %	NOT SURE/DISAGREE %
A. I KNOW HOW TO MAKE FRIENDS	77.3	22.7
B. I LIKE TAKING CHALLENGE	72.5	27.5
C. I HAVE CONFIDENCE IN MYSELF	68.9	31.1
D. I WON'T FEEL UNEASY WITH ADULTS	56.6	43.4
E. I'M NOT EASILY INFLUENCED BY OTHERS' OPINION	54.7	45.3
F. I'M NOT AFRAID OF AUTHORITY	41.6	58.4
G. I'M LIKED BY OTHERS	34.3	65.7
H. I'M A PERSON OF ACHIEVEMENT	29.8	70.2
I. I LIKE TO LEARN FROM ADULT'S BEHAVIOUR	21.0	79.0

There were significant correlations between some of the child rearing methods and the child's invulnerable characteristics, indicating that there are profound effects of child rearing practices on the child's personality construct. The more frequent the parents talked about others' accomplishment to the children, the more the children felt socially competent in making friends (tau = 0.11414, $p<0.01$). For parents who like making comparison between their children and their peers, their children were more capable of making friends and had greater self-confidence (Tau = 0.12032, $p<0.01$, and tau = 0.16215, $p<0.001$ respectively). There were positive correlation between parents making demand on their children in sharing housework, and shouldering family responsibilities on the one hand and the children's readiness to take up challenge on the other. (tau = 0.12035, $p<0.01$ and Tau = 0.10568, $p<0.01$), It was also found that when parents showed high expectation of their children's educational attainment, their children felt greater confidence in themselves. (tau=0.14293, $p < 0.001$).

4.2.2 TYPE A BEHAVIOR:

Another aspect of the hurried phenomenon is the development of Type-A behavior in children. Using Bortner's Test (1969) scaled by Cooper (1988), the mean score of the present sample of Hong Kong children was 88.47 (S.D.19.48). As Cooper has used 84 as a cutting point, and anyone with a score above that can be termed as Type-As, it is justified to say that Hong Kong children do have Type-A tendency. In fact 63.4% of the children were showing Type A personality. The general profile as revealed by the children is listed in Appendix I. As can be seen, several items did stand out as Type-A behaviors prominent among Hong Kong children, and they were: never late about appointments, eager to get things done, fast in doing things and wanting a good job done being recognized by others. The first three items indicated that Hong Kong children had a strong sense of time urgency. There was no sex difference in the mean score, but the Type-A score correlated significantly with age, with more Type-A children in the higher age group, r=0.253, p=0.0023), indicating that Type-A behaviors were progressively acquired.(TABLE 3)

TABLE 3: TYPE-A & AGE

		TYPE-A pattern			
		TYPE-B		TYPE-A	
		n	%	n	%
AGE	BELOW 9	7	64	4	36
	9	25	50	25	50
	10	37	43	49	57
	11	25	34	48	66
	12	15	29	37	71
	13	4	14	25	86
	14 and +	1	9	10	91

chi=19.19 p<0.004

tau=0.269 p<0.000

Parents who frequently made child/peer comparison would have children that had high Type-A score (Tau=0.13921, p< 0.01). On the contrary, parents who made demand on the child to understand their hardship had a child with lower Type-A score. (tau=-0.11969, p<0.01). The child who reported having difficulties in meeting parental expectations has a high Type-A score (tau=0.11014, p<0.05). Those who experienced psychological stress in their daily life also had high Type-A scores (tau = 0.17729, p<0.01).

When individual items were investigated, there was significant positive correlation between parents' mentioning other's achievement to the child and the child's competitiveness (tau = 0.12811, p<0.01). When the parent was anxious about the child's achievement, the child became more hard-driving (tau = 0.15869, p<0.001). Some negative correlations were also found. Parents who talked to their children about their hardship would have children that were good listeners and were ready to express their feelings (tau = -0.13082, p<0.01 & tau = -0.14149, p<0.05).

Difficulties in fulfilling parental expectations had positive relationship with six of the Type-A behaviors which were "always rushed" (tau=0.14001, p<0.01), "impatient while waiting" (tau = 0.17282, p<0.001), "tries to do many things at once,thinks about what to do next" (tau = 0.12331, p<0.01), "fast in doing things" (tau = 0.14274. p<0.001) and "eager to get things done" (tau = 0.11738, p<0.01).

Perceived psychological stress by the child was also positively correlated to some of the type-A behavior which included "always rushed" (tau = 0.12252, p<0.01), "impatient while waiting" (tau = 0.20215, p,0.001), "tries to do many things at once, thinks about what to do next" (tau=0.11482, p<0.01), "fast in doing things" (tau = 0.11959, p<0.01) and "hard-driving" (tau=0.12275, p<0.01). Similarities in trends between these last two findings indicated that some correlation may have existed between difficulties in fulfilling parental expectations and perceived psychological stress by the child, and this is supported by the research result (r = 0.4409, p<0.001).

4.2.3 ANXIETY

As indicated earlier, anxiety manifested is another indicator of the children being hurried. The measurement of manifested anxiety using the CCMAS indicated the mean score for the children studied to be 18.57 (S.D. 6.87). For boys and girls the scores were 17.51 (S.D. 6.43) and 19.72 (S.D. 7.09) respectively. These findings were comparable to the Taiwan CCMAS scored.(TABLE 4)

TABLE 4 : CCMAS SCORE. COMPARED WITH TAIWAN

	TAIWAN grade 5			HONG KONG age 9 to 14		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
BOYS	117	18.74	7.84	158	17.5	16.43
GIRLS	115	20.65	7.56	151	19.7	37.56

t=8.33 p=0.0042

Similar to the Taiwan findings, there was significant difference between sex in manifested anxiety as shown in Table 4 (t=8.33, p=0.0042). Again, like its Taiwan counter-part, there was no age difference in CCMAS score. This indicates some convergence between Taiwan and Hong Kong. Children's anxiety was positively correlated with difficulties in meeting parental expectation (tau = 0.20137, p<0.05), and the psychological stress expressed (tau=0.17729, p<0.01). Children who were not allowed to follow their interests, reported greater anxiety (tau=0.18270, p<0.001). Significant correlation was also found between manifested anxiety score and type-A score (r= 0.2760, p<0.001).

5. DISCUSSION

In this study, it is found that the child hurrying phenomenon which is common in the U.S.A. , Singapore and Taiwan also exists in Hong Kong. Furthermore, the parent-child interaction pattern in the U.S.A. as identified by Elkind (1986) is similarly found in Hong Kong families. By treating the child as his surrogate self, the parents often make comparison between their child and other children. Taking the child as his status symbol, the parent becomes overtly anxious about the child's achievements. Regarding the child as his partner, the parent makes demands on the child in sharing housework and other family responsibilities. Seeing the child as his therapist, the parent outpours his grievances and emotion. By taking the child as his conscience, the parent expects the child to understand his dilemma and consent to his behaviors.

Although similarities are found, some interactions do stand out prominently which reflect the unique features of Hong Kong Society. 94.8% of Hong Kong parents were anxious about their children's education attainment, which is a guarantee to social upward mobility and economic security. With the existing education system which calls for keen competition, school failures are bound to arise. With the increase in number of dual career and nuclear families, it is not surprising to find 79.9% of the children reporting that they had to take share in housework. The possibility of overloading the child and taxing his energy reserve is worth investigation. It is also a very common practice of Hong Kong parents to mention other's accomplishment in front of their child (67.9%), and to make comparison between the child and his peers(69.5%). This parent-child interaction can be very harmful since the child's self-worth will not be built upon what he has achieved, but on how better he has achieved compared to his peers.

Dual career families differ from other families in some aspects of child rearing. These parents tend to rely more heavily on their children sharing family responsibilities. They are inclined to share their emotions with their children. By doing so, they are exhausting the child's energy and may be making demands that are inappropriate to the child's age, intelligence, and level of maturity. Thus, besides the possibility of lacking physical care when mothers have to go out for work, the stress of mothers being displaced on their children is also an area of concern.

Child rearing pattern is also related to whether father is locally born. Immigrant fathers more frequently mentioned about others' accomplishment in front of their children, this may be due to their feeling of insecurity and belief in the struggle for survival.

In this study, a great number of Hong Kong children graded themselves as socially competent, facing challenge bravely and confident in themselves - they are invulnerables! But we cannot be overtly optimistic about this new generation because underneath this "invulnerable" covering is a weak self - only 29.8% of them admitted themselves as person with achievements, and only 34.3% of them regarded themselves as lovable.

The invulnerable characteristics are found be to related to familial influences. They are learnt through specific parent-child interactions. They are the results of the coping strategies that children employed to alleviate the stress from inappropriate parental demands. These are defense mechanisms that help the child to disguise his weak self-esteem and hampered self-worth. To make an analogy, they are like warriors who dress themselves in armors to hide away their weaknesses and protect themselves from being hurt.

People with Type-A personality are more coronary-prone. Matthews(1981) thought that Pattern A was more prevalent in society like the US than in an Eastern society, since contemporary Western society offer special rewards and opportunities to those who can think, perform, and even play more rapidly and aggressively than their peers. This speculation needs to be refined, since in this study, 63.4% of the children reported Type-A personality. The psychological state and physical health of these children deserve notice. A high percentage of the Type-A children in Hong Kong is showing an intense sense of time urgency. According to Ornstein (1969), a possible explanation for this is children are faced with ambiguous standards for evaluating accomplishments, and this leads to a sense that time is insufficient to accomplish all that one wants to get done. Parents, by placing heavy emphasis on the other's achievement and evaluate their children on a comparison basis is giving a lot of ambiguous standards to their children. This explanation is further supported by the research finding that children who have high Type-A score have parents that frequently made child-peer comparisons.

As Type-A score was significantly correlated with age, it indicates that such behaviors are progressively acquired. It is further indicated that child rearing patterns does have some impact on the acquisition of Type-A personality. As supported by the fact that difficulties in fulfilling parental expectation had positive correlation with six of the Type-A behaviors, behavior patterns are reactions to parental demands. Research findings support the notion that when the parents frequently mention about the accomplishment to their children, the latter becomes more competitive, and when parents are anxious about their children's achievement, the latter become more hard-driving.

The anxiety score of Hong Kong children is comparable to that of Taiwan, partly because people in both societies are mainly Chinese. Another reason is both Taiwan and Hong Kong are modernized, industrialized, and affluent countries having similar parent-child interaction patterns. Chung(1987) pointed out that Taiwan kids faced great pressure that originated from parental expectation and academic demands. He further added that parents, by making unrealistic demands on their children's achievement and hastening their cognitive development, are putting extra pressure on their children. This is further supported by the research finding that Hong Kong children's anxiety is positively correlated with difficulties in meeting parental expectation. The psychological stress experienced by the child originates from difficulties in fulfilling parental expectation. The significant correlation between manifested anxiety score and Type-A score indicates some relation in the positive direction between anxiety experienced by the child and his Type-A behaviors.

6. CONCLUSION - IMPLICATIONS ON COUNSELING CHILDREN

The findings in this research indicate that parents, by making inappropriate demands through their child rearing methods, are putting excessive strains on their children, resulting in hastening their growth and maturity. The children, on the receiving end, become highly-anxious. They try to cope with the strain imposed on them by eliciting Type-A behaviors and cultivating invulnerable traits. The psychological well-being of this hurried generation is an area worth looking into by counseling professionals.

The hurrying phenomenon is a parent-child interaction complex. Thus counseling the parent is equally if not more important than counseling the child. Brenner(1984) remarked that there are literally fewer caring adults living with children nowadays. Children are pressed to grow up faster with their childhood being eroded.

Parents should be made aware of their child rearing patterns. They have to evaluate whether these patterns are appropriate to their childrens' age, intelligence, maturity and developmental stages. Further, they have to differentiate between parent-child interactions that are used to meet parental needs or the child's needs. Elkind (1986) warned that parents in stress are absorbed with themselves. They become so egocentric that they have little opportunity to consider the needs and interests of their children. In Hong Kong, parents are overtly anxious about their children's academic achievements, which is creating excessive strains particularly on the low achievers. Academic attainment is the only sign post for establishing one's self-worth. The Hong Kong school system is creating a large number of children with failure identity, this present research indicated they do not regard themselves as a achieving persons. The parents, instead of alleviating this sense of failure, are accentuating it. Hong Kong parents by assessing their children's accomplishment on a comparative basis with their peers, are setting up ambiguous standards of evaluation for their children, causing a lot of confusion and unnecessary strain on their children. And, as Matthews (1981) pointed out, emphasizes on productivity and ambiguous standards for evaluating productivity are very crucial to the etiology of pattern A. Parents should understand their children's potential and capacity and make realistic expectations on their children. Particular professional attention may be needed in families whose father is not locally born or whose mother is engaged in the work sector, since research findings indicated that children in these families are faced with even greater strains.

The children under study are anxious, exhibiting Type-A-Coronary-prone behavior and invulnerable traits. These are hampering psychological well-being and physical health of the child. Counseling professionals may need to help the child acquire relaxation skills to live in an environment that is so anxiety-provoking. Time urgency is a prominent feature among the Type-A children. As this trait may have originated from parents making ambiguous standard of evaluation, children should be helped to evaluate themselves according to their own internal instead of external frame of reference. They should be helped to set personal attainable goals that enable them to build up a positive self-concept. Jenkins(1971) pointed out that people with Type-A behavior patterns were often deeply involved and committed to their work so that other aspects of their lives were relatively neglected. Children should be encouraged to explore a wide spectrum of interest besides concentrating on academic work. Elkind(1986) went further to suggest true genuine play as an antidote to hurrying. Children should be provided with more play time instead of spending all of their time on academics and skills. Children bearing invulnerable traits are putting on masks, and a lot of energy is locked up in pretending that they are competent. Such children should be facilitated to remove their mask, accepting themselves as they are, appreciating their own achievement, so that energy can be released for better growth and development. As the parent is the generator of the hurrying phenomena, children should be taught how to be assertive and reject unrealistic demands made on them by their parents, so that their energy may not be drained.

To conclude, the challenge for Hong Kong counseling professions is, in Lazarus's words (1986) : How can we help children acquire the toughness needed to manage in a harsh world and yet retain their basic humanity?

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APPENDIX 1

PROFILE OF TYPE A BEHAVIOUR (average score of each item is inscribed)

1.	Casual about appointments	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 [✓ 10] 11	Never late
2.	Not competitive	1 2 3 4 5 [✓ 6] 7 8 9 10 11	Very competitive
3.	Good listener	1 2 3 [✓ 4] 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	Anticipates what others are going to say (nod, attempts to finish for them)
4.	Never feels rushed (even under pressure)	1 2 3 4 5 [✓ 6] 7 8 9 10 11	Always rushed
5.	Can wait patiently	1 2 3 4 5 [✓ 6] 7 8 9 10 11	Impatient while waiting
6.	Takes things one at a time	1 2 3 4 [✓ 5] 6 7 8 9 10 11	Tries to do many things at once, thinks about what will do next
7.	Slow deliberate talker	1 2 3 4 5 [✓ 6] 7 8 9 10 11	Emphatic in speech fast and forceful
8.	Cares about satisfying him/herself no matter what others may think	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 [✓ 8] 9 10 11	Wants good job recognized by others
9.	Slow doing things	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 [✓ 8] 9 10 11	Fast (eating, walking)
10.	Easy going	1 2 3 4 5 [✓ 6] 7 8 9 10 11	Hard driving (pushing yourself and others)
11.	Expresses feelings	1 2 3 4 [✓ 5] 6 7 8 9 10 11	Hides feelings
12.	Many outside interests	1 2 3 4 [✓ 5] 6 7 8 9 10 11	Few interests outside home/work
13.	Unambitious	1 2 3 4 5 [✓ 6] 7 8 9 10 11	Ambitious
14.	Casual	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 [✓ 9] 10 11	Eager to get things done

VIEWING MORITA THERAPY FROM A PROCESS-ORIENTED PERSPECTIVE

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Morita Therapy was developed by Dr. Shoma Morita around 1919 (Mizutani, 1968 & 1970). It is largely based on Buddhist philosophy and it is known to be most effective in the treatment of a class of neuroses called shinkeishitsu neuroses. The shinkeishitsu neurotic has a tendency to exhibit interpersonal problems as well as somatization of his conflicts. His underlying problems seem to be shyness and a sense of inferiority. Although he is well motivated for recovery he seems unable to get out of his over-sensitivity to others and negative self-talk bind that tends to keep him in social tension and isolation. Described by David Reynolds (1987, pp. 4-45) as one of the "quiet therapies", Morita Therapy is currently practiced by some 80 therapists in 30 hospitals and 56 mental health groups in Japan.

While learning about Morita Therapy at the Sansei Hospital, the only traditional Morita Therapy Treatment facility in Japan, the authors realized that there were interesting parallels between Morita Therapy and Process Oriented Psychotherapy. Process-Oriented Psychotherapy (POP) as developed by Arnold Mindell (1985) focuses upon the client's communication patterns across the visual, auditory, proprioceptive (feeling), and kinesthetic (movement) channels. POP holds that therapeutic change occurs when the therapist focuses upon and follows the client's own communication process and helps clients become aware of the unconscious parts of the process.

As a result of our preliminary discussions with Dr. Usa and Mr. Yammamoto of the Sansei Hospital we concluded that viewing the effects of Morita Therapy through a patient's diary from a POP perspective held promise for explaining both successful and not so successful outcomes with clients. The patient's diary was chosen for analysis because it not only is one of the major treatment tools in the Morita therapy but also reveals the patient's process of recovery. Although there has been Morita Therapy diary analysis attempted previously (Ohara, Iwai, Kitanishi, & Honma, 1971 & 1972), none was ever conducted from the POP perspective. This article is based on the analysis of 10 patients' diaries and describes both the parallels between the two treatment modalities and the effects of Morita Therapy from a POP perspective. Among the 10 diaries 6 were written by patients who were cured and 4 were written by patients who were partially cured.

Morita Therapy

Principles and Stages of Morita Therapy

Miura and Usa in their article "A Psychotherapy of Neurosis, Morita Therapy" (1970, p. 5-6) describe the basic principles of Morita Therapy as: (1) contradiction of thought, (2) realization and understanding, and (3) obediance to nature. They define these principles as follows:

1. *Contradiction of Thought*: the difference between idea and fact; thinking about what one wants to be or should be often brings about a contradictory result. The neurotic who longs for perfection and is idealistic often falls victim to this trap.

2. *Realization and Understanding*: there is a difference between realization which is self-consciousness based on actual performance and understanding which is abstract intelligence of the ought or must variety. The neurotic places too much importance on the latter rather than the former.

3. *Obedience to Nature*: the activity of our body and mind is a natural phenomenon beyond our artificial control. The neurotic believes that he can control his body and thoughts by his thinking or worrying.

The traditional Morita Therapy takes place in an in-patient setting. There are four stages to the treatment (Usa & Kinoshita, 1987 p.23-30).

The *First Stage* is a period of isolation and absolute bed rest (4 to 7 days). The patient is forbidden to meet with others, to talk with others, read, write, sing, smoke or eat between meals. He is allowed out of bed only when he eats, bathes, and excretes. He is instructed to endure worldly thoughts and all of the pain which accompanies them. Additionally he is advised not to avoid facing agony. The patient is interviewed daily for several minutes to see if he is following the instructions without cheating. Should he fail to follow the instructions he may be discharged from the hospital. Also the interview may be terminated should the patient complain of his symptoms. Miura and Usa (1970) describe a patient to be in agony at the beginning, however, after about four days he becomes bored and tired of lying in bed. He expresses his desire to get up and do something. The therapeutic principle is to minimize the patient's contradiction of thought and to reduce his conflict to a simpler form of psychic interaction. The secondary goal is to allow the patient to recover from exhaustion and to experience spontaneous activities.

The *Second Stage* is known as a period of light work. This is a period following the complete bed rest and it lasts 3-7 days. The patient is forbidden to socialize, play, or read. His sleep is limited to 7-8 hours and he is required to be out of doors on the hospital grounds during the daylight hours. This means he is forbidden to take a rest in his room. Particularly for the first two days following the complete bed rest, the patient is prohibited from taking any actions that will require the use of muscles, such as climbing an elevation or using a bamboo broom, or taking a walk without necessity, or doing physical exercise, or playing with children or dogs or cats, etc. The patient is encouraged to carefully observe plants and animals on the hospital grounds. During the middle to latter part of the second stage, the patient is asked to perform necessary work at hand, not for fun or interest, but for keeping him always in action. The patient is instructed to keep a diary after supper every day. The diary is to be based only on what he observed and what he did. The diary is read and commented on by the attending physician daily and it becomes an instrument to gauge the patient′s progress in therapy. The symptomatic changes are allowed to occur as they happen and at the same time the spontaneous desire to work is facilitated through hand work, such as weeding or gathering dead leaves. All patients who are at the second stage or higher attend lectures three times a week. He is encouraged to pretend he is healthy and to accept his symptoms (arugamama--the way it is) rather than dwelling on them. Additionally, in the morning and at bed time after washing up, the patient is required to read, for five minutes, a portion of a difficult classic book such as, *Kojiki*, always from the beginning. Regardless of the understanding of the content, the patient is asked to read accurately in pronunciation. The therapeutic principle used at this stage is to break the contradiction of thought by making the patient concentrate on unrelated activities and help him gain insight into the dynamics of the paradox. It is a period of transition from rest to spontaneous activity.

The *Third Stage* is called the period of chores (7 to 20 days). During this period the patient works according to his state of health. He is encouraged to focus on the immediate experience of daily life rather than dwelling on how well he performs or how he appears to others. The goal of this stage is to have the patient become so fully occupied with work that he is oblivious to the passage of time. This period is an extension of the second stage in which the variety and heaviness of work is increased in order to help the patient acquire self-confidence in his capacity.

Morita Therapy

The Fourth is a final stage of therapy and is called a period of complicated practical life (10 days). The goal of this stage is to have the patient return to a normal, practical everyday life and to work patiently through steady application of effort whether or not he is interested in what he is doing or whether or not he is feeling well. Sometimes patients are permitted to go to work or attend school outside the hospital. The treatment goal is to arrange conditions under which the patient can develop his capacities to the utmost while retaining his native character.

Principles and Techniques of Process-Oriented Psychotherapy

As developed by Arnold Mindell (1985) POP holds that therapeutic change occurs when the therapist focuses upon and follows the patient's own inner process and thus increases the patient's awareness of its unconscious aspects. Following the patient's process means to observe the shifts in his communication channels (seeing, hearing, feeling, movement, etc.). The patient's nonverbal messages are sometimes Primary (part of his identity) and sometimes Secondary (unconscious for the client). Primary processes are closer to awareness and include content, feeling, and automated habits (Beggs, 1987, p. 9). Secondary processes in contrast are all the unconscious phenomena like vocal tone, gestures, and body symptoms (Beggs, 1987, p. 9). Secondary process can be brought closer to patient's awareness by amplifying behavior signals. Mindell states that "the exact nature of amplification depends on the individual client, therapist and the channel. There is no one set of techniques which will fit every situation." (1985 P.25) Quite often amplification takes the form of exaggerating behavior or stopping the behavior. For example, a small hand movement can be amplified by exaggerated movement of the hand; or stopping the hand motion completely. Secondary processes usually occur in unoccupied channels. In addition to the signals which define the channel the patient is using, the therapist also pays attention to whether a channel is occupied or unoccupied. An occupied channel where the patient experiences himself as the agent (uses I words); an unoccupied channel is one in which the action is done to the patient (use of passive language). When the channel is unoccupied, the person is a victim, a passive recipient of the action.

Mindell identifies six process channels-- visual, auditory, proprioceptive, kinesthetic, relationship and world (1985, pp. 14-17). He stated that the most commonly used channels in therapy are the visual, auditory, body feeling (proprioceptive), and body movement (kinesthetic). The relationship and world channels are mixtures of the four basic ones. The visual channel is usually the best developed and is signaled by upward eye-movements or head movements, the predominance of breathing in the upper chest, and by the use of visual predicates like see, look, insight, etc. Use of this channel allows us to gain emotional distance from phenomena and organizes insight. Visual signals may be amplified by asking the client to make them more focused, intense, and bright.

The observable cues for the use of the auditory channel include lateral eye-movements to the left or right, breathing from the mid-chest, a tilted head positon, and the use of such predicates as hear, listen, sounds, etc. Auditory signals can be amplified by asking the client to focus upon the tone, tempo, rhythm, and loudness of speech or sounds or by asking him to repeat words.

The cues for recognizing use of the body feeling or proprioceptive channel are predominance of stomach breathing, eyelid flutters, downward looking eyes, hands touching painful areas of the body, and the use of predicates like feeling, pressure, depression, pain, joy, and being turned on or off. The therapist can amplify pressures and pains by pushing, rolling, vibrating or lifting the body area.

Use of the body movement or kinesthetic channel is indiated by nature of movement or lack of movement in the face, hands, legs, and torso. Amplification can be achieved through mirroring movement, verbal encouragement, physical blocking, or toucing or propelling the movement.

Relationship is a composite channel and in it "'relationship' is referred to in discussions where people talk about another person with whom they are familiar as if this person were the central object of awareness." (Mindell, 1985 p.20) Statement such as "My children are constantly on my mind," or "My husband is angry with me" are examples. Amplification of this channel can be accomplished by having the client notice his behavior in the midst of his relating to a person.

The World channel is also a composite channel and we refer to it when we focus our attention to the outer world, the universe, unfamiliar people, foreign objects and events, jobs and money problems, etc.

Mindell (1985, pp. 18-19) describes a finer differentiation of the signals in each of the four basic channels. The signals can be introverted, and extraverted. Introverted vision can be described as a person looking up into the air, gazing off into the distance, or closing his eyes and saying, while holding his breath, that he is visualizing an internal scene not necessarily seen by others. Introverted hearing includes internal dialogue, voices from the past, music, or strange internal sounds. Introverted feeling includes hightened awareness of internal sensations and discomfort. Introverted movement includes dream-like movements, anticipation of movement, and out-of-body experiences.

In contrast, extraverted signals refer to information which is usually part of external reality. Extraverted vision focuses upon the colors and shapes of clothing, nonverbal cues to feelings, and sensitivity to double signals in a person's movements. Extraverted hearing focuses upon the content of speech and the tempo and tonality of natural sounds. Extraverted proprioception includes knowledge of another's body experience through touch, while extraverted kinesthesis helps a person have the ability to move in a congruent and graceful way.

Analysis of the Morita Therapy Stages from the POP Perspective

The client's progress through the stages of Morita Therapy can be described in terms of his process from the perspective of POP. Using the POP framework may help to explain both the successful and unsuccessful outcomes of Morita Therapy.

In Stage One, during the 4 to 7 day period of absolute bed rest the patient's environment is changed so that he can reduce his inner conflict between his idealistic strivings and his experience. By restricting the person's social contacts, physical movement, auditory as well as visual stimuli he is helped to focus on his experience. It is likely that the type of neurotic coming in for Morita Therapy is an auditory processor who engages in a lot of critical self-talk, auditory fantasy, and who is frequent disturbance by external noise. In POP terms negative self-talk is an automated primary process which is experienced like a secondary process. Furthermore, all other experiences stated above are considered to be in the patient's secondary process in his auditory channel, phenomena over which he has the least control and least understands. He is also likely to experience secondary process or symptoms in his proprioceptive channel such as physical symptoms, unwanted negative feelings, depression, and disease. Helping the person to change the focus of his attention to his inner experience amplifies his symptoms in automated primary process and secondary process and bring them to awareness, thus the patient undergoes agony after a day or so of complete bed rest.

The amplification of negative images, whether auditory, visual, kinesthetic, or proprioceptive, brings about a shift in energy and channel. However, the shear fact of having to rest in bed keeps the patient restricted only in the channels he has occupied thus far. He is merely repeating his old pattern and he becomes bored with the experience. The patient develops a new impetus to move into unoccupied channels. This is the phase when in Morita Therapy terms the patient becomes bored and begins to express his desire to get up and do something.

During the second stage, the patient is first instructed to spend the daytime outdoors. He is told to carefully and deligently observe animals, plants, and landscapes, etc. From the POP perspective, the patient is led into occupying an extraverted visual channel following the channel shift from either auditory (mostly introverted) and/or introverted proprioceptive channels. At the same time the patient is encouraged to engage in light work such as gathering leaves or weeding. This moves him into the extraverted kinesthetic or movement channel. It is interesting to note that the movement channel tends to be the least occupied channel all over the world, and Morita Therapy effectively utilizes this channel. Reading twice a day from the old classics with strict attention to the pronunciation leads him to utilize his auditory channel in a constructive, externalized way. Additionally attending lectures three times a week further strengthens the use of the extraverted auditory process. Thus the auditory channel becomes no longer dominated by automated primary process, but a fully occupied process in which both extraverted and introverted auditory processes are present. The slides lecture on art introduced by Dr. Usa at Sansei Hospital enhances the extraverted visual as well as the auditory process. Furthermore, writing a diary solely on observations and activity forces a person to continue to occupy the newly expanded extraverted visual and movement channels. Forcing the occupation of unoccupied visual and movement channels opens the way to get around the psychological blocks and bring about change in a natural way. There is a parallel between the Morita principle of allowing the patient's symptoms to change naturally and the POP principle of following the person's inner process wherever it flows.

In Stage 3, the patient is encouraged to focus on his immediate experience of work and daily life so that he will reduce the amount of negative self-talk, obsessive thinking, and preoccupation with symptoms. At Sansei Hospital, the patient is required to join the patient association and participate in governance. Private conversation is forbidden and any exchanges among the patients are limited to task related matters. In POP terms, this is a reinforcement of the use of the visual and movement channels which he began to occupay during the first stage. Additionally he is encouraged to move into the world channel of service. As the patient becomes more and more able to fully occupy his visual and movement channels, the patient's diary begins to relfect his change process. The patient becomes more and more able to write only what he saw and what he did rather than writing about his feelings or his thoughts. Forcing familiality with new channels, and encouraging the opening of a new channel shifts all the problems from old channels into the new channels. This process is in analogus to the opening of dams to release water into new resevoirs. Such a large movement will tend to cause all the blocks to undo themselves thus leading to problem resolution. As mentioned earlier, the journal work and the lecture attendance continues to enhance the process of change.

During the fourth and the final stage of treatment the patient returns to a normal, practical everyday life of work or school. He commutes to school or work from the hospital whenever possible; additionally he continues with his chores, lecture attendance, and diary work at the hospital. From the POP perspective, the task of this stage is two fold. One is the introduction of the relationship channel, while living firmly in the newly acquired visual and movement channels and newly balanced auditory channel. By being able to fully occupy all his channels the patient is encouraged to follow his own developing process in a spontaneous and creative way.

Discussion of the Diary Analysis:

Analysis of 10 patients' diaries revealed that Morita Therapy seems to work when the treatment process parallels the patients' own process in such a way to utilize new channels and unblock unconscious obstacles to progress. This means that the successful Morita patients are auditory processors who react to what they think or hear (extraverted auditory) and become caught up in thinking process which trigger negative self-talk (introverted auditory channel) which in turn turns on negative feelings (introverted proprioceptive channel). At the time they come for treatment they are occupying mostly their introverted auditory channel and interoverted proprioceptive channel. As the treatment progresses the channel shift begins to take place and they become increasingly more able to move into their visual and movement channels. Additionally, they experience change in their auditory channel, and become able to utilize both the introverted and extraverted auditory channels.

Diary analysis of the successfully treated cases pointed that for some, the channel shift took place rather smoothly and in a linear progression. However, for most, progress took place in a cyclical progression; that is at times they were able to move into their visual and/or movement channels and occupy these channels, but from time to time regressed back into their introverted auditory channel (negative self-talk) or introverted proprioceptive channel (negative feelings or sensations).

These patients were brought back on track by the comments made by the therapist in their diary. Interventions took the forms of amplification by exaggeration or by encouragement of staying with the process to its end, or thought stopping while movement continued. Additional interventions were positive feedback and reinforcement, education of the process, and sharing of information. All the interventions were aimed at keeping the patient in either his visual or movement channel. Although some of the patients had difficulty staying in the visual channel they learned to utilize it to a degree. All of the successful patients appeared to be able to fully occupy their movement channel.

Two distinctive patterns emerged as the diaries of the less successful cases were analyzed. One group of patients initially occupied their extraverted visual channel which triggered off negative feelings (introverted proprioception) and negative self-talk (introverted auditory). Although the clinical picture might not appear much different from the first group of patients since they exhibited a depressed mood, self depreciation, and somatization, these patients were qualitatively different since they already occupied their visual channel. When they were ready to shift their channel after the initial stage of treatment, they needed to move into their extraverted auditory channel rather than the visual channel prescribed by Morita Therapy. Only then would the channel shift have been possible. These patients did show partial improvement when they became able to move into their movement channel from time to time. However, the channel shifts were not dramatic enought for them to release the block in their thinking.

Another group of not so successfully treated patients exhibited a rigid auditory channel structure. These patients showed the pattern of extraverted auditory process activated negative introverted auditory process (negative self-talk) and negative feelings (introverted proprioceptive process.) Their process pattern appeared to be identical to that of the first group, however because of their strong investment in the auditory process they were unable to move into the visual channel when required to do so. Their diaries indicated what they thought rather than what they saw and observed. The rigidity went as far as to one of them stating in the diary "I heard the slides on art." For this group of patients, the three weekly lectures became a trigger to engage in negative feelings or negative self-talk. They showed partial improvement when they were able to shift into their movement channel from time to time.

The structured Morita treatment process becomes less effective when it fails to follow the patient's process or to sufficiently amplify the unconscious signals in the auditory, feeling, or visual channels. A suggested strategy for the patients whose extraverted visual channel triggers off negative feelings and negative self-talk would be to ask them, in their second stage, to pay attention to the sounds of the outside world and feel the movement even to the point of blind-folding them. This will force them to occupy their extraverted auditory and extraverted kinesthetic channels which will create a shift in blocked energy. As for the patients who tend to stick stubbornly to the auditory channel, amplification by exaggeration might be suggested in order for them to break out of the auditory process since amplification by stopping the process (first stage) did not bring about enough shift. Asking them to attend lectures whenever they are not working or asking them to listen to audio tapes of the lectures throughout the day while they worked might flood the auditory channel gate to bring about the shift.

Conclusion:

Although the analysis of ten diaries is too small a sample to draw definite conclusions, there seems to be enough parallel between Morita Therapy and POP to allow new a perspective to emerge in understanding and strategizing Morita Therapy. If we were to explain Morita Therapy and its process from the POP perspective, its therapeutic effectiveness seems to lie in bringing about a shift in the patient's information process pattern which unblocks him leading to cure. From the small sample of diaries analyzed it became evident that for Morita therapy to be effective, the patient has to at least be able to shift into another channel and fully occupy that channel. In all the instances of the subjects under investigation, the successfully treated patients learned to fully occupy the movement channel. Although some of them were not sucesssful at occupying the visual channel fully, they were partially able to utilize the visual channel.

The first suggestion for future research is to analyze a larger sample of both successful and not so successful patients' diaries to substantiate the trends identified in this preliminary study. The second suggestion is to try out the above suggested strategies for the two types of not so successful patients and evaluate their effectiveness. The third suggestion is to directly interview patients who are blocked in their treatment process in order to verify our hypothesis about the origins of the blocks.

Single-Parent Family Student Group in Hong Kong*

Betty YAU, FUNG Ching Ping, MA HO Wan Fong, Wendy HO & Carol YANG.

Introduction

At the threshold of the 21st Century, where emphasis is liberation (particularly of women) and search for personal fulfilment, a lot of good things have come out, but an adverse aftermath is breakdown of the family system. Having worked for years with adolescents in schools in Hong Kong, the authors have at various times and occasions tried to help students from single-parent families. The present program and research study is a concerted effort in this direction.

In this paper, the authors first present the background of single-parent families in Hong Kong, then describe problems and needs of, and services to these families, lay out the objectives, content and format of the Single-Parent Family Student Program, outline the steps and procedures of the research study, present and discuss the results, then make a conclusion and some recommendations for future work for single-parent family students.

Background

"A single-parent family is a family where there is an absence of one parent for an extended period of time in which the remaining parent has to shoulder the responsibilities of managing the family ." (Kang 1984, p.2) In this paper, single-parent families refer to families in which absence of one parent is due to death, divorce, separation or desertion since these represent the majority of single-parent families in Hong Kong. (Kang, 1984)

In Hong Kong, the incidence of divorce is on the rise, with the number of approved divorce cases more than doubled in a period of five years. The number of approved divorce cases rising from 2060 in 1981 (filed cases were 2811) to 4257 in 1986 (filed cases were 5339), (Census Department, 1987). The large majority of divorce cases involve children evidenced by the fact that 85% of couples filing for divorce in 1978-80 had one to two children (Hong Kong Council of Social Service, 1987). Single-parenthood due to marital breakdown (2.6%) was only slightly less frequent than that due to death (3.4%). In the case of marital-breakdown about equal proportions of children experienced father-absence (1.4%) and mother-absence (1.2%). In the case of single-parenthood due to death, 2.7% of the children had no father versus 0.7% who had no mother. (Kang et al, 1986, p.48)

In 1985, the Ontario Ministry of Community and Social Services (1985, p5) stated that "All Families have problems."

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* This is a preliminary report of the Single-Parent Family Groups mounted in two secondary schools in Hong Kong. Gratitude is due to Ma Ying Huk for helping in the statistical analysis.

pointing out that amongst problem families, single-parent families are not in the majority although they are in the majority amongst families with special needs. Indeed the absence of a parent in a nuclear family system demands realignment of both the parent-child subsystem and the sibling subsystem. In Hong Kong, 75.7% of families were nuclear families (BGCA, 1984). Family size is also small, in 1986, the average number of persons in an average family in Hong Kong was 3.7 (Census, 1987). Thus, single-parenthood often means loss of parent in a small family where his/her role is difficult to be replaced. Single-parenthood however is a multi-stage process with a sequence of events occurring before and after the event of marital breakdown (unhappy marriage, separation, divorce and single-parenthood) and death (illness, death and single-parenthood). In addition, although life in a single-parent family, like in an intact family, undergoes different stages of development, the development of the single-parent family is complicated by members' adaptation and stages of adjustment to the traumatic experience of single-parenthood. (Kang, 1984)

Problems and Needs of Single-Parent Families

We now briefly reveal findings about the problems and needs of single-parent families in general and single-parent family children in particular. The departure of a parent or partner, whether due to death or marital breakdown, is a traumatic experience in the family. The death of a parent indicates finality , it is irreversible. It is an irretrievable loss which must be adjusted but because it is not a frequent occurence, one cannot find a solution by falling back on previous experience (Chu, 1975). Chinese culture has the tradition of "open weeping", "the mourning sevens" and "seven grief-releasing functions" to ventilate emotions of grief, anxiety, fear and depression and perhaps expensive funerals satisfy some emotional needs or relieve guilt feelings. Chu (1975) said children reacting to the death of a parent experienced anxiety, grief and guilt. They sensed a loss of identity and had to assume new roles. But often, in the hustle and bustle, they were neglected and their feelings tended to be played down. They, as minors, lacked the opportunity to air their grief, anxiety and fear.

To children, divorce means the loss of a parent, a situation over which he/she has no control and which has occurred through no fault of his. Since divorce is considered unacceptable and wrong, particularly in the traditional Chinese culture, there is no institutionalized status passage to go through like there is for people who mourn the dead (Mak, 1986). Some children are left to speculate on what has happened and what is going on because the remaining parent has difficulty in explaining the mishap to them. Children from marital-breakdown families often face subtle forms of social ostracism because most parents want their children to associate with children from "good" homes whose parents are "fine" people. Society, particularly Chinese society, is less generous, protective and forgiving, toward parents made single by marital-breakdown than toward parents widowed. (Mak 1986)

Wallerstein (1980) referred to three sources of strain for parents and children of single-parent families, namely, responsibility overload, task overload and emotional overload. Kang (1984) outlined perceptions of single-parenthood among single-parents in Hong Kong, such as, incompetence due to emotional distress, depression and loneliness; low self-esteem due to involuntary employment, unemployment and social discrimination; feelings of powerlessness; lack of social support; though at times for some, relief. Kang also listed stresses facing members of single-parent families, such as, finance, housing, change of roles and responibilities, and risk of overload. Tsui (1978), Young et al (1985), Young (1986) and the Hong Kong Christian Family Services Centre (1986) reported research findings that concurred with those of Kang (1984) on the plight, problem and needs of single-parent families.

Children from single-parent families suffer no less grief, anxiety, depression and fear than their parents. Their suffering may be worse because they lack the ability to express and the opportunity to ventilate their feelings. Young (1986) in her study of children from single-parent families reported that 55% of them felt a subdued sense of loss, 64% had caring sensitivity to the custodial parent and a yearning for the absent parent, 53% refrained from social activities despite personal inclination and up to 80% felt a mature sense of duty, being forced to grow up too quickly.

Generally, evidence indicates that adolescents of divorce are at a higher risk for developing particular emotional, social, and behavioral problems (Wallerstein et al, 1984, Hetherington et al 1978). Kelly et al (1980) found that even five years after breakup, 37% of the single-parent family children were still depressed. "Islands of unhappiness and diminished self-esteem or anger continued to demand significant portions of their attention and energy which sometimes hampered the full-development of their potential." (Kelly et al 1980, p.68). Luepnitz (1979) found that single-parent students fear being abandoned. Raschke et al (1979) found them having lower self-image. Kurdek et al (1980) found that they have lower sex role self-concepts in terms of level of masculinity and femininity. Brown (1980), Institute of Development of Educational Activities and NAESP (1980) found single-parent children lower in school achievement but higher in discipline problems at school, such as, tardiness, absentism, truancy, and dropout. Hammond (1979) and Arlington (1980) found single-parent children higher in problem behaviour as well as distractibility.

In Hong Kong, there is a growing concern over the predicament of single-parent families (Ng, 1984, 1986; Tang, 1984). The Working Group on Juvenile Crime (1981, Appendix 6.6) reported that 18.3% of juvenile cases were offenders with single-parent backgrounds. Child abuse studies revealed that about 30% of the abusing parents were separated, divorced, widowed or unwed (International year of the child Coordinating Committee Work Group on Child Abuse Study, 1979, Table 17). This is not surprising in view of the psychosocial problems children of single-parent family have to face. Kang et al (1986) in his research on single-parent family children reported aggressive and antisocial (externalizing) problems; sadness, depression and self-esteem (internalizing) problems; and sexual and heterosexual relationship (gender identity) problems prominent among adolescent children of divorced parents.

The emotional and social adjustment of single-family children depends very much on the parent's ability to maintain his/her own emotional stability, to harness resources, to maintain relationship with and to provide an appropriate role model for their children (Editorial 1986). Jacobson (1978) found that better adjusted single-parent family children had more attention from their parents. Also children who were able to bring up their feelings and problems to their parents for discussion were better adjusted.

Children's relationship with the remaining parent depends on the latter's perception of them. Kang (1985) in his study of mother-child relationships in single-parent families found children who looked like their father (in the mother's perception) had significantly higher scores on items such as, demanding, rejecting, symbolic as well as direct-object punishment, but significantly lower score on parent-child relations. However, these children expressed a preference to look like or be like their mothers rather than their fathers.

Interaction of sex comes into play in relationship between children and single-parents. Kang (1985) found in mother-headed single-parent families, boys obtained significantly higher scores than girls on items such as, protecting, rejecting, neglecting and direct-object punishment. He also found that, on the whole, single-parent children had significantly higher scores on items such as, demanding and direct-object punishment. Yu (1984) found father-absent boys less advanced in stage of moral development, less likely to conform to rules, less accepting of blame for misdeeds but more aggressive.

Ng (1984) recommended that single-parents should be helped to give more support to their children in the form of more care and concern by talking and listening, and by recognizing their social and emotional needs at different developmental stages and that efforts should be made to improve parent-child and sibling relationships through case work. Ng further recommended that direct help be given to children by helping them to identify their problems of stigmatization, low self-esteem, guilt feelings, socialization problems, inadequate supervision, schooling problems and changing roles; to use groups to handle their emotional stress; to adopt teachers, social workers and peers to act as models.

Services to Single-Parent Families

Research indicates that group sharing, support and dynamics are most effective in helping single-parent family children to cope with the situation (Kang, 1984). Hetherington (1979) found adolescents experience initial pain and anger over parents' marital-breakdown but they are able to seek gratification from their peers and teachers later. Doering (1980) also found that the adjustment and social behavior of single-parent children was more shaped by their teachers and peers two years after divorce. Courtney et al (1979) found that low academic achievement for single-parent sons was due to the lack of adult male role model, and concluded that understanding male teachers using special intervention strategies would be helpful.

Teachers should try to identify single-parent family children in their classes and render help when needed (Arlington, 1980 and Espinoza, 1983). They should avoid stigmatizing these children and instead, they should constantly re-examine their own tendencies to favour nuclear-family patterns and try to extend their knowledge and skill in dealing with single-parent family children (Shea, 1982; Snow, 1983). Bettker (1985) outlined 50 steps in helping single-parent family children, ranging from using unbiased curriculum materials which promote varied role models, pairing single-parent family children with staff and teachers who are understanding and sensitive to their needs, and provide service to such students such as therapeutic groups and peer counseling. Snow, (1982) also recommends the following for single-parent family children: workshops, groups and curriculum planning to ensure time and opportunity to discuss their feelings.

The needs of single-parent families in Hong Kong has begun to be recognized. Ng looked into the problem (1984) and started services and research (Family Life Education and Family Counseling Section, 1986). These followed Albee's helping model (1982), based on the belief that the rate of problem occurence would be increased by the amount of stress experienced, but would be decreased by positive organic factors, coping skills, self-esteem and the amount of support received. Ng and her agency tried to decrease the stress of single-parents by increasing their coping skills, self-esteem and support from the society. She conducted researches, gave talks, and wrote articles and pamphlets on single-parent families. She ran therapeutic groups for single-parent families which encouraged mutual support. She helped to set up a single-parent family cooperative which organized social and recreational activities for parents and their children. This group and the cooperative have been established for over a year and have published an anniversary issue of their Journal (Single-family Cooperative, 1988). Seminars and an extra-mural course were organized for social workers working with single-parent families. An exhibition, a slide show and a drama competition about single-parent families were mounted to educate the public. In Hong Kong considerable help has been given to single-parents, but comparatively little help has been rendered to single-parent family children. This present program is an attempt to address this need.

Single-Parent Family Student Group Program Package

Kang (1984) pointed out that some of the problem areas facing single-parent family children being guilt feelings, social stigmatization, low self-esteem and socializing problems. These problems interact so that guilt and social stigma affect self-esteem negatively and subsequently, these children, like others with low-self-esteem, tend to have socialization problems.

31.5

In the United States, Sheridan (1981) introduced structured group counseling and bibliotherapy group for single-parent family students. Two handbooks were developed, one for each type of group, to guide counselors in their work. He found that students were more satisfied with either type of treatment than placebo treatment. Bradford (1982) developed a group counseling booklet for counseling students whose parents were divorced or separated. This booklet included goals, suggested format, activities and audio-visual materials. These materials were field-tested, evaluated and found useful.

The present Program is designated to help adolescents in junior secondary schools. What follows is a description of the Program.

1. Objectives

The objectives of this Program are to help single-parent family students,

a. to be aware of and discuss in the open their feelings of guilt and social stigmatization,
b. to build up a positive self-concept, and
c. to enhance their social development.

2. Target Group

Group members are single-parent family students recruited from Forms 1 to 3 (Grades 7 to 9) from two schools in two ways: those who read the poster describing the nature of the group and volunteer to join, and those the school counselors already know. These students are interviewed, given further information about the Group and screened. Students who have experienced single-parenthood during the previous two months are excluded since they needed more intense personal counseling than can be offered by the Group. The Program consists of ten one-and-a-quarter hour sessions after school. Initial group size is kept to a maximum of ten for ease of management and maximum participation. The school counselors serve as the facilitators. They are teachers with masters degrees in counselling.

3. Content

The first session is a warming up session, with activities designed to get members acquainted, clarify rules, and express one's expectations and goals in joining the Group. The second to fifth sessions aim at increasing members' awareness of self-esteem issues and helping them to rebuild their self-esteem through reducing guilt feelings, alleviating the effect of social stigmatization and increasing acceptance of their own sex role and role changes. The sixth to nineth sessions aim at raising members' awareness of their socialization patterns and enhancing their social development by the acquisition of inter-personal social skills through role play and contracting. The tenth session is a concluding session in which members evaluate their own change and consider directions for further development.

4. Format

The Program specifies the ojectives and the activities for each session, for each of which the physical setting, materials and process are spelt out. Activities range from self-reflection, expression in the form of talking, writing and drawing, discussion, role play and contracting. The materials required for each session such as incomplete sentence cards, sex stereotype lists, anecdotes, worksheets, etc. are also supplied. A pilot test was carried out in a school to evaluate the suitability of activities and materials and to check the time requirements for activities and sessions. On the basis of this experience, unsuitable activities were eliminated, activities were then put in their right place and exercises and worksheets were translated into Chinese.

The Research Study

1. Measures used to check effectiveness of Program

a. Demographic Information Sheet

Demographic Information Sheet was used to obtain background information on the students: parent's name, age, occupation and salary; student's relationship with parent; living conditions such as type and size of housing and amount of rent; person doing housework and student's involvement; family recreational activities and frequency of pursuance; person supplying student's educational, living expenses and pocket money; person signing student's report card; person supervising student's studies and frequency of supervision; reason for single-parenthood; relationship with absent parent, frequency, duration and nature of meeting with the latter.

b. Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI)

Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (short form, 1967), consisting of 25 items was given to each student prior to and at the end of the program. The Scale measures evaluative attitudes toward self in several domains which are indicative of high and low self-esteem. This Scale has been widely used in self-concept studies with all ages, and has a test-retest reliability of .88 over five weeks and .70 over three years (figures are for long form, but short form correlates over .95 with the long form, Coopersmith 1967). The short form (in Chinese) has been used successfully with Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong and found to be reliable (Cheung et al, 1985; Ma et al, 1988).

c. Family Environmental Scale (FES)

Moos and Moos's Family Environmental Scale (1986) was also given to each student prior to and at the end of the Program. It comprises ten sub-scales which measure the social environmental characteristics of all types of families. The ten sub-scales assess three underlying domains or sets of dimensions: the Relationship dimensions, the Personal Growth dimensions, and the System Maintenance dimensions. These sub-scales have reasonably high reliability with medium internal consistency around .70. This scale (in Chinese) has been used successfully with Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong (Cheung et al, 1985; Lau et al, 1987, Ma et al, 1988).

d. Student Opinionnaire

The Student Opinionnaire was filled out by students at the end of the Program. It consisted of two main parts. Part One covered the respondent's opinion on the degree of helpfulness of group activities, explanation and discussion; which degree the group goals had been achieved and which goals had not been achieved; whether the student would encourage other single-parent family classmates to join the Group. Part Two covered student's attitude change, such as increase in self-esteem, confidence, understanding of parent, trust and degree of acceptance of self being a child from a single-parent family; and behaviour change, such as making more friends in school, more expressive of own concern to close classmates, teachers and parents, and greater participation in extra-curricular activities.

e. Facilitator Opinionnaire

The Facilitator Opinionnaire was filled out by the facilitator at the end of the Program. It consisted of his opinion on (1) change in attitude and behaviour of each student after completing the Program along dimensions similar to those in Student Opinionnaire and (2) his overall opinion about the Program also along dimensions similar to those in the Student Opinionnaire. In addition, the Facilitator Opinionnaire tried to find out the degree of cohesiveness, amount of interaction and sharing in the Group.

2. Student Sample

Of the nine secondary schools invited to participate in the research program, only two were able to comply because only they could each find ten single-parent family students from Forms 1 to 3 (Grades 7 to 9) who wished to join the group. The other seven schools could not do so, chiefly because the single-parent family students were reluctant to be singled out.

The counselors in the two selected schools served as group facilitators. They both held master degrees in counseling, were teaching in these school and serving as convenors of their school guidance teams. The researchers briefed the counselors at the beginning of the program and monitored closely throughout.

The first school was a coeducational, government, non-religious school, established in a new town 7 years ago, with 1000 students mainly from lower-class families with very good teacher-student and teacher-principal relationships. The second school was a girls' government-aided, Christian school, established in an urban district 53 years ago with 1200 students from middle-class families with very good teacher-student relationship and fairly good teacher-principal relationship. The two group facilitators were very experienced teachers and counselors, they were well-known to students and had very good relationships with them.

In the first school ten students joined the group initially. Of these ten, only six, five boys and one girl all from Form 2 completed the whole Program. The Demographic Information Sheet revealed that among the five boys, three lived in mother-absent families (two from divorce and one death) and two lived in father-absent families (one from divorce and one separation). The girl lived in a father-absent family due to death. One father-absent family boy lived in family-owned property, four lived in public low-cost housing and one in a squatter hut. All students had very little pocket money, and for recreation, they had television, radio-broadcasts and window-shopping with either parent or sibling. Relationship with parents ranged from good to fair. Three of them had their report cards signed by their parents, two by grandparents and one by his elder brother.

In the second school, of the eight students who joined the group initially only three persisted to the last session. They were all Form 2 girls (it is a girls' school). The Demographic Information Sheet revealed that all three girls lived in father-absent families (two from death and one divorce). All three mothers earned more than ten thousand dollars a month. One family lived in public-housing and two in family-owned property. All three girls reported good relationships with their mothers who signed their report cards for them. Two of them went swimming, picnicking and shopping with their mothers frequently and they had two- to five-hundred dollars pocket money per month.

3. Limitations of the Research

The program could only be carried out in two schools, a total of only nine students completed the Program. Due to the tight schedule, the program had to be limited to ten weekly sessions and had to be fitted into a continuous time slot consisting of the ten weeks when students were free from tests and examinations. This research has the following limitations:

(1) The number of schools and the number of students were both too small to be fully representative.
(2) The Program was not long enough to allow issues to be treated thoroughly or to allow time for even greater improvement to be observed or measured.
(3) Due to stigmatization, it was not expedient to inform other teachers or to involve them in working with these students.
(4) Parents were informed but not involved, again to avoid the problem of stigmatization and also due to shortness of time and personnel.

Results and Discussion

The Program was helpful in encouraging students to express openly their feelings and conflicts to their family members. It improved their family relationship and advanced their personal growth. Students and facilitators confirmed the usefulness of the Program in their Opinionnaires.

1. Effect of the Program as Indicated by Change in Students' Self-Esteem Inventory and Family Environment Scale Scores

Table 1 lists out the pre- and post-program means and standard deviations of the Self-Esteem Inventory and Family Environment Scale of the sample. Compared to a Hong Kong sample of normal-family adolescents (Cheung et al, 1985), the pre-program scores of the present sample did not differ in Self-Esteem Inventory nor in Family Environment subscale scores except for significantly lower Expressiveness, (t-value for difference of mean is 2.91, significant at 0.05 level). The smallness of the sample may be a reason for insignificance of differences. Compared to the American sample of normal-family children, (Moos et al 1986), the present sample scored lower in expressiveness and Independence (t-values for differences of means are 5.69 and 5.05 respectively, significant at 0.001 level) as well as in Intellectual-Cultural Orientation and Active-Recreational Orientation (t-values for differences of means are 4.45 and 4.55 respectively, significant at 0.01 level).

Comparing post- and pre-program scores of the sample, there is higher post-program scores in Expressiveness and Conflict subscales, (t-values for differences of means are 2.27 and 2.00 respectively, significant at 0.05 level). When the FES subscale scores are combined into Relationship, Personal Growth and System Maintenance dimensions, post-program scores are higher for Relationship and Personal Growth dimensions compared to pre-program scores (t-values for differences of means are 3.46 and 2.02 respectively, significant at 0.01 and 0.05 level respectively). The post-program FES combined score is higher than that of the pre-program (t-value for difference of mean is 2.34, significant at 0.05 level). However, there is no significant change in students' self-esteem scores.

Comparing change in post- and pre-program scores by sex of students, analysis of variance indicates that girls made significantly greater progress in the Expressiveness and the Control subscales of FES compared to boys, (F-values are 7.41 and 5.73 respectively, both significant at 0.05 level) while boys made significantly greater progress in the Independence subscale, (F-value is 9.23, significant at 0.05 level).

Comparing change in post- and pre-program scores by sex of parents, analysis of variance indicates that students living with mothers made significantly greater progress in Achievement-Orientation and Control subscales of FES compared to those living with fathers, (F-values are 6.30 and 25.00, significant at 0.05 and 0.01 levels respectively).

Compared to normal-family student population in Hong Kong, the present sample did not differ in self-esteem, but they were less Expressive, (less encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly). This tends to confirm previous data suggesting that single-parent family students have less time and attention from the remaining parent and they need special encouragement and help to learn to express their feelings. Compared to American normal-family children, the present sample was less Expressive as well as less Independent (less assertive, self-sufficient and making own decisions), lower in Intellectual-Cultural Orientation (lower degree of interest in political, social, intellectual and cultural activities) and lower in Active-Recreational Orientation (lower extent in participation in social and recreational activities). The extent to which the above differences between Chinese and American students is due to cultural differences or single-parenthood remains to be established by further research.

Significant improvement in Expressiveness and Conflict after the Program indicated that the Program was effective in helping students to express openly to family members their feelings and aggression toward one another. Significant improvement in Relationship and Personal Growth dimensions indicated that the Program was effective in helping single-parent family students develop relationships and personal growth directions. Also significant improvement in FES combined score indicates that the Program was effective in improving students' adjustment to and growth in their family enviornment.

When differential effect of the Program on girls and boys was examined, evidence indicated that the Program was more helpful to girls than boys in developing abilities to express feelings (Expressive subscale) and to use set rules and procedures to conduct family life (Control subscale); the Program was more helpful to boys than to girls in developing the ability to be assertive, self-sufficient and make their own decisions (Independence subscale).

When differential effect of the Program on students of mother-present and father-present families was examined, the data indicates that mother-present families tend to engage more in achievement-oriented or competitive activities and to use more set rules and procedures to run family life compared to father-present families.

2. Students' and Facilitators' Opinion on the Program

Student Opinionnaire on the Program revealed that a majority of students (at least two-thirds) felt that after the Program, there was either very great, or great, increase in their self-esteem, confidence, understanding of their parents, trust of others and acceptance of being a single-parent family child. Also over two-thirds of students said that the Program very definitely, or definitely, encouraged them to make more friends in school, volunteer services, participate in activities, communicate more with teachers and parents. Also slightly more than half of the students said they would talk more about their inner concerns with classmates and communicate more with other people.

The Facilitator Opinionnaire on the Program revealed findings along the same direction as the Student Opinionnaire. Facilitators believed that the Program was helpful to over two-thirds of students in expressing their feelings, and in increasing their self-esteem, understanding of parents, trust of others and acceptance of being a single-parent family child. Facilitators also thought that the Program could encourage over two-thirds of students to make more friends, volunteer services to classmates, participate more in activities, communicate more with teachers, parents and other people. As like students, the facilitators thought that slightly over half of the students would talk more about their main concerns with classmates.

Ninety percent of students thought positively about the Program. They felt that facilitator's explanations, group activities, discussions following activities and talk with the facilitators after the sessions were very helpful or helpful. The two facilitators held similar opinion about the Program. The majority of the students (78%) thought program objectives were achieved. However, one student said meeting once a week was not enough to establish group cohesiveness, another said she could not reach a total acceptance of herself being a single-parent family child and another said he could not make record-breaking improvements in his academic achievement. One facilitator felt that group objectives had been achieved, but the other felt that not all objectives had been achieved due to shortness of time and student absentism due to sessions clashing with other school activities. Eighty percent of the students and both facilitators said they would encourage other single-parent family students to join the group. Group facilitators thought that group interaction and group sharing were high while group cohesiveness was not so high. One facilitator suggested more sessions to extend improvement gained, but sessions of shorter duration because of young adolescents' short attention span. The second facilitator said she decided to continue with the Group after the experiment was over because the students requested it.

Conclusions

Results indicate that this Single-Parent Family Student Program helps single-parent family students to express their feelings and agression openly among family members. It improves students' family relationship and personal growth. It helps single-parent family girls to express their feelings and to use set rules and procedures to conduct family life more than boys, while it enhances boys' independence more. It facilitates mother-present families in using set rules and procedures and in engaging in achievement or competitive activities more than father-present families. Even though according to the Self-Esteem Inventory, the Program was not able to raise students' self-esteem, a great majority of students and both facilitators thought, as reflected by the Opinionnaires , that the Program was able to increase students' self-esteem, confidence, understanding of their parents, trust of others and acceptance of being a single-parent child. They would encourage other single-parent classmates to join the Program.

Compared to normal-family students in Hong Kong, the present sample of single-parent family students did not differ in self-esteem, but they were less Expressive. Compared to American normal-family student, the present sample was less Expressive and Independent, and lower in Intellectural-Cultural and Active-Recreational Orientations.

Recommendations

The rise in the incidence of single-parent families coupled with rise of nuclear families result in responsibility, task and emotional overload. Emotional adjustment and growth of single-parent family students need special help which is best offered in schools through group and individual counseling. The present study points to the needs and effect of single-parent family student groups. The authors would like to make the following recommendations:

1. Single-parent family student program should be made available to students in all schools in Hong Kong since the actual number of single-parent family students can be as high as 6% of the school population (Kang et al, 1986).

2. Program should be long term, lasting from one to two terms, because it takes time for students to go through the stages of warming-up, awareness and acceptance of difficulties, finding ways to cope, implementation and refinement of coping strategies.

3. Duration of sessions should vary according to age of students. Active procedures and concrete aids should be used. Program materials should be tailored to meet the needs of students in individual schools which may differ in religious background, social economic status and sex of students.
4. Due to cultural differences, program materials should be adapted to the Chinese culture and Hong Kong conditions.
5. Single-parent family student groups should be reasonably heterogeneous in terms of sex of students and of their parents to encourage learning from one another. However, members need to be split into more homogeneous subgroups (sex of students and of their parents) to achieve varied objectives and to adapt different procedures.
6. Group programs should be complemented by individual counseling when needed.
7. It would be more effective if the counselor could collaborate with parents so that the latter could be more accepting of changes made by students as the Group proceeds, and progress made could be extended to home situations.
8. School counselors working with single-parent family students should have training in the form of seminars and workshops so that they acquire the knowledge and skill for this work.
9. Last but not least, it is most essential for teachers and principals to have an open and accepting attitude toward non-traditional family patterns and to build up an atmosphere of trust in school.

Table 1 : Mean and Standard Deviation of the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) and Family Environment Scale (FES) of Sample of Single-Parent Family Students

	PRE-PROGRAM		POST-PROGRAM		
Measures	$\overline{x}$	SD	$\overline{x}$	SD	t-value
Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI)	13.78	5.24	12.89	4.60	0.57
Family Environment Scale (FES)					
Relationship Dimensions:					
1.Cohesion	4.78	2.64	4.78	3.42	0.00
2.Expressiveness	2.89	1.27	3.89	1.27	2.27*
3.Conflict	2.67	1.80	3.67	1.73	2.00*
Personal Growth Dimensions:					
4.Independence	3.78	1.56	4.56	2.13	1.21
5.Achievement Orientation	6.00	1.23	6.00	1.50	0.00
6.Intellectual-Cultural Orientation	2.56	1.94	2.67	1.87	0.29
7.Active-Recreational Orientaion	2.44	1.81	2.78	1.79	0.89
8.Moral-Religious Emphasis	3.33	1.87	4.00	1.87	1.63
System Maintenance Dimensions:					
9.Organization	4.89	2.21	5.00	2.65	0.24
10.Control	4.22	1.92	4.22	1.56	0.00
Relationship Dimensions:	10.33	2.00	12.33	2.35	3.46**
Personal Growth Dimensions:	18.11	5.95	20.00	2.03	2.02*
System Maintenance Dimensions:	9.11	3.41	9.22	3.93	0.24
Combined FES	37.56	7.94	41.56	9.86	2.34*

** significant at 0.01 level
* significant at 0.05 level

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Cultural Differences in Decision Making

A Practical Model for Educational and Career Counselors

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The Land of Golden Opportunity

The powerful myth of Horatio Alger represents the promise of the American dream -- a promise founded on opportunity and individual effort. The Algerian myth symbolizes a society in which opportunity is always present and hard work brings success. Indeed, the promises of opportunity, freedom of choice and a better life are the historical compass points that have guided many immigrants to the United States.

Opportunity and freedom of choice are ingrained in our cultural expectations about education and careers. The traditional American cultural model for educational and career decisions emphasizes individual abilities, aptitudes, interests and values in a match with opportunities and options. This model implies equal access and individual choice and accomplishment. Individual choice, access and achievement are powerful tenets of the American dream -- a dream that subtly influences the expectations of those who come to us for counseling. However, there are external and internal realities to these expectations. For example, external realities of educational decisions include the availability of educational programs, entrance requirements and financial costs. External realities of career decisions are related to labor market supply and demand as well as job opportunities and hiring requirements.

In this paper, we, as counselors, will address internal realities, specifically the internal realities that are formed from cultural expectations and perspectives. We will also share with you a practical decision-making model that includes examination of cultural differences, information about education, the world of work and careers.

As counselors in a multi-ethnic, multi-racial educational setting, we listen to the problems and dilemmas about education and career choices that reflect our students' cultural backgrounds and their attempts to adapt to American expectations. We will present a counseling outline that reflects our experiences with some of our students. Specifically, we will discuss our Chinese students and the cultural expectations that influence their choices and plans. We will explore how these cultural expectations both coincide and conflict with the Algerian myth and the American dream.

Cultural Expectations

We are reluctant to categorize our experiences because of the danger of creating sterotypes and generalizations. However, we find that there are themes in cultural expectations which reflect generational differences and length of residence in the United States. We present five key thematic outlines that we have experienced in our counseling with Chinese students.

1. The Chinese Immigrant

Chinese immigrants come to the United States with a cultural system that is over 4000 years old. This is a value system that (a) is male oriented, (b) highly values education as a means of achieving upward mobility, status and honor and (c) has life-long commitment and group identification with the immediate family, the extended family, the village and the clan. This last value is in direct contrast to the American concept of individuality. Members of a clan will sacrifice to help another clan member succeed. Status is achieved through education. Education leads to jobs which bring prestige and influence to the village. Positions of status include those in government, education, and medicine. For example, if one son in a village passes the civil service examination, the whole village is honored. Subsequently, the man is expected to help the people of the village through his influence and financial support. Life-long fealty is expected toward family, clan and village.

The immigrant family comes to the United States with these values as well as expectations about life in the United States. The United States is perceived as the land of opportunity, especially for the children. Opportunity is defined as a good education, a well-paying job and the acquisition of home and land. The immigrant children are expected to excel and fulfill the dreams of their parents who have sacrificed homes, careers, financial reserves, and family contacts to come to the United States. Depending upon the parents' English language ability, the children may also be responsible for linking their parents to American society; for example, interpreting English, taking care of business and household chores, dealing with governmental agencies, etc. The adjustment for immigrant families is usually easiest for those who are affluent. They usually have a good command of English and are able to use their financial resources to establish life in the United States. For the less affluent, the road is much more difficult. They come less prepared educationally and financially.

For the adult immigrant, the first concern is finding a residence and providing for everyday needs. Learning basic English is an important priority. Work depends on the level of English language skills as well as the job skills (and certifications, licenses, degrees) needed in the American job market. It is very difficult for an adult immigrant to transfer his or her education, training and work experience into the American economy. The adult immigrant usually enters the job market at the low-skilled or semi-skilled level until English language competency provides entrance into job training programs. Some adult immigrants never move beyond low-skill and low-paying jobs.

The parental situation places a heavy burden on immigrant children. These childen carry strong internalized expectations that are constantly reinforced by parental admonitions. The immigrant children are expected to do well in school, eventually attend a prestigious university (UC Berkeley or UCLA) and enter a professional occupation that is acceptable to their parents (and reflects well on the clan and village). These occupations frequently center around science, medicine (doctor or pharmacist), mathematics, higher education or engineering. These expectations also reflect a reality. The affluent children frequently come to the United States better prepared in the sciences and mathematics from their studies in the Orient than their American counterparts. They are able to do well in these university courses in the United States. The cultural expectation for a prestigious education and occupation is very strong. In addition, there is an equally strong expectation that the immigrant family members, including the children, contribute money from their jobs to the family system in China and America. The emphasis is on continuous, cooperative support. Success in the United States brings honor and prestige to the village in China. These values are entrenched, not open to question or dissent. Thus education and career decisions are collective decisions and rarely open to individual preferences or personal judgments.

2. The First Generation

The first generation Chinese are strongly influenced by the values of their immigrant families. Education continues to be viewed as the road to success and status. And the United States remains the land of opportunity. Parents save and sacrifice to send their children to good schools. Often this means private elementary and high schools. The children are expected to attend prestigious universities and to enter acceptable occupations. English language facility is not a problem and the children do not have to be the family interpreters. However, the children are still expected to contribute money to the family and to help each family member attain his/her educational goal. The concept of collective fealty is still strongly internalized. Education and career decisions may be more individualized but the expectation remains that the children will attend an outstanding university and choose a status occupation acceptable to the family (and, implied, the clan). Culturally, it remains difficult to make an individualized decision that does not coincide with the collective expectations. However, in many families, difficulties do arise as children question and challenge their parents -- behaviors not permitted in immigrant families. The generation gap becomes a reality and there is an attempt to personalize decision making.

3. Second Generation

By the second generation, cultural differences fade and American values become part of the family system. Language is not a problem and parents have established their American lives. Often the parents have become part of the middle class economy and life style. They own homes and are active members of community. There is still cultural influence about education, occupations and prestige. However, this influence tends to be an intergration of Chinese and American values.

4. Chinese Student in the United States

The Chinese student who comes to the United States for his/her education faces enormous pressure. Educational and career choices are severely restricted by cultural values, time limitations of student visas as well as the financial expense of foreign student study. Some foreign students are sent by their parents with only travel money. Once in the United States, these students have to earn their room, board and tuition even though they are legally restricted from working. In addition to financial burdens, many students now face the political consequences of the turmoil and unrest of the past year. For the foreign student, university or college selection is directly related to the job market back home in China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Malaysia, etc. The choice of university and major is dependent on what is prestigious and marketable back home and not on individual interests or abilities. The prestige attached to an area of study or major and the reputation of the college or university are paramount. Little value is placed on studies that are not directly related to the major such as humanities or general education. These studies are seen as a waste of time and money. As with the immigrant family, the performance and achievement of the Chinese foreign student direcly reflects on the clan and village. Moreover, the student is dependent on financial support from home and will be forced to come home if he/she is not acting properly or achieving satisfactorily. The Chinese foreign student struggles between two worlds, the new world of American values, culture, language and education versus the power of his/her home culture and expectations. For the Chinese foreign student, there are few individual choices and many cultural restraints.

Counseling

As counselors with the San Francisco Community College District, we see students who represent each of the themes we have described. We counsel newly-arrived adult immigrants who have no English language skills and who seek opportunity for themselves and their children. We advise first and second generation Chinese-Americans about educational and career options. We assist the Chinese foreign student who wants to study here and then return to find a good job that brings status and honor to his or her family, clan and village. Our job is to help each student, young, middle-age or old, to achieve his or her educational and career goals. Moreover, we have the responsiblity to honor each person's tradition and culture as well as to provide information about American opportunities -- opportunities that carry the American cultural expectations reflected in the Horatio Alger myth of individuality and hard work and the dream of success and a better life.

The San Francisco Community College District in which we work has two divisions. These two divisions are City College of San Francisco which provides instruction in college credit courses and the San Francisco Community College Centers Division which provides adult education courses. Both divisions have technical and occupational training programs.

Chinese students attend courses in both divisions. For example, currently there are approximately 7,000 ethnically identified Chinese students at City College. During the past two years, more than 10,000 Chinese have participated in our beginning, first level English as a Second Language (ESL 50) adult education course. How do we help the many, many people who come to us? How do we help them understand the cultural differences? In addition to individual counseling and advisement, this is the plan that we have developed and implemented through our couunseling programs.*

First Step: English as a Second Language

As educators, our first step is to advise people about the opportunities to learn English. English is the language of American work and higher education. Beginning classes in English as a Second Language (ESL) are taught in all the neighborhoods in San Francisco. Our bilingual counselors provide individual counseling to each person who enrolls in our classes. This counseling includes assessment of educational needs as well as practical information such as encouraging people to obtain their social security numbers.

Second Step: Community Resources

Once people are enrolled in English classes, we have the opportunity to introduce them to the social services, resources and educational opportunities available in San Francisco. With the assistance of local community groups, we organize bilingual workshops, lunch meetings and evening presentations to orient students to community resources and to American cultural values.*

Third Step: Orientation to American Work Opportunities and Occupational Training Programs

In our mid-level English as a Second Language courses, our teachers introduce students to the job search process: reading want ads, using community employment resources, completing applications and learning about interviewing techniques as well as employer expectations. Counselors discuss the San Francisco job market and training opportunities. In addition, we have learned that it is very important to discuss the differences in cultural values about work, especially to explore American values about personal choice and individualism. These concepts are often new (and foreign) to immigrant adults and their children. Yet, these concepts form the basis for job training and career selection in the United States. Moreover, these values underscore both counseling philosophy and assessment instruments developed for career guidance and job selection. At the San Francisco Community College Centers, we have developed ADVISE, an interest inventory for mid-level ESL students. This inventory is used to introduce concepts about choice and job training options. The interest inventory is keyed to the job training programs which we offer free of charge in the San Francisco Community College Centers Division. We encourage mid-level ESL students to think about obtaining and/or upgrading their job skills and moving from low-skilled, semi-skilled positions to better paying jobs.*

Fourth Step: Orientation to American Higher Educational Opportunities

Mid-level ESL students may also participate in the ESL College Preparatory Workshop. This workshop is designed to help students enter college and to succeed in higher education. Study skills, college requirements, financial assistance, reading and writing skills as well as an orientation to college work comprise the workshop curriculum. We also address cultural differences and expectations and explore the values that are both related to and placed on higher education and fields of study. For example, we explain college curriculums that require general studies including courses in the humanities for graduation.*

Fifth Step: Citizenship Classes

Citizenship classes are an integral part of our educational program. Instruction includes American history and governmental law and process. Here, too, cultural differences in leadership and decision making are discussed. Counselors arrange on-site workshops and forums that address legal rights and responsibilities (voting, the amnesty program, immigration information, employee rights, landlord-tenant responsibilities, etc.) *

Sixth Step: Work-study and Job Placement

Counselors work with students enrolled in occupational programs. Work-study positions are arranged which give adult students the opportunity to learn the customs and social rules typically found at an American work site. Students are also helped with job placement. Counselors provide advice about job performance, hold mock interviews, videotape job information sessions and practice interviews, arrange employer forums and discuss employer expectations about work and social customs. *

Adult Education and College Counseling

First Step: College-level English as a Second Language

When students have completed the ESL training at the Community College Centers Division or demonstrate ability to enter ESL courses at City College, they are seen by City College counselors. In addition to ESL, they are encouraged to take college courses. The functions of the counselor at City College include both advisement and education. For the foreign student or the newly arrived immigrant student, the counselor provides academic and cultural information, explaining the college system and educational requirements. The counselor is a resource for personal and academic problems -- problems that frequently emerge when people are in transition between two worlds. This first step involves a lengthy process of support and assistance until the student becomes acclimated to college life in the United States.

Second Step: Information about College Majors and Occupational Programs

This is an area in which the differences between cultural values become most pronounced and difficult. Foreign students, immigrant students and first generation students come with family, clan and village expectations about college prestige, occupational status and the appropriate choice of majors and careers. Moreover students educated in the Orient are often better prepared in math and science and less prepared in English than their American counterparts. Recently foreign students have shown an increase in their TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) scores and their verbal communication skills, probably the result of global mass communication (television, videos, transitor radios). However writing skills lag behind and many students are disappointed in their ESL course placement when compared with their TOEFL scores. This disappointment causes conflict and unease. The students also have little understanding or patience for general education requirements. These requirements are viewed by the students and their families as a waste of valuable educational time and money. Students are highly motivated to transfer to four-year programs and want the courses and grades that will get them into UC Berkeley, UCLA or a similar prestigious university.

Tensions flare when the student is unable to meet his/her and family expectations because of lack of ability, aptitude, interest or preparation. The clash is traumatic and difficult to resolve because failure is the only perceived outcome. The counselor's role is to be sensitive to these problems and to attempt to provide support by helping the student understand the situation and develop acceptable options. Role-playing with the student in a parent-child scenario or asking the student to have his/her parent call and discuss the situation with the counselor (as an authority figure and a faculty member of the college) have been found to be helpful interventions. Additional counseling is available through the Career Development and Placement Center and the Economic Opportunity Program. Peer advisement is also available. The Tutoring Center and the Writing Clinic help with specific problems. * However, it remains difficult for students to use these services or to resolve conflicts and problems because of the perception of failure for the student, the family and clan.

This is the most difficult problem that our counselors face and requires a deep respect for cultural differences. Resolution may involve changing the educational program, leaving school or, for the foreign student, returning home. It is difficult to predict what the outcome will be.

Summary

We have shared with you our experiences in counseling students and recognizing the influence of cultural differences on education and careers. We are happy to share the materials we have developed with you and invite your experiences, comments, suggestions and questions about counseling and cultural differences.

* Materials will be distributed during the presentation.

GRIEF COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY: A DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL

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INTRODUCTION

The case for training of teachers and counselors:

As the world becomes industrialized and more and more people are uprooted from their culture and community, as values change, and populations age through better nutrition and health care, the focus is shifting in times of stress and crisis from the family and community to the helping professions. At the same time, there are many important losses sustained by individuals and families for which there are no existing customs or rituals (such as divorce, remarriage, immigration). This adds to the need for outside support.

Loss is a part of life: Loss is a part of any change. Each individual sustains a multiplicity of losses throughout the life span. Some of these losses bring desired change and development. Some do not. The loss can be of family members or family structure through death, divorce, remarriage and immigration; loss of friends and community through moving and resettlement; loss of faith through shifting values; loss of self-esteem and feelings of success through the experiences with teachers and school. Perhaps, however, the greatest loss sustained in all of these circumstances is the loss of hope and dreams for the future. Learning to cope with loss and change over the life span and to grow from these experiences is a difficult task.

Grief counseling has been predominately a western phenomenon since the second world war with its main focus being on traumatic death. This factor has been attributed to changing beliefs about death and the loss of mourning customs in industrialized countries such as the United States and Great Britain. However, changing world circumstances point to an increasing need for teachers and counselors in all parts of the world to understand the experience of loss and to focus on strategies to help individuals cope with all life changes. At the same time people are experiencing the pain of massive losses brought on by changing society, traditional support systems that help people in time of crisis are disappearing. However, in the midst of all of this, there exists an exciting possibility for growth and development of both the individual and the family. The word "crisis" means both danger and opportunity. It is now up to the helping professions in times of great world change to help people move from their distress to fuller, stronger functioning.

BACKGROUND

Understanding Grief and the Process of Resolution

Grief is a universal human response to loss and change. In times of change, one may be looking forward at the same time they are also looking backward. As Peter Maris suggests in his book, Loss and Change, people are basically conservative. They want a world that is predictable and hence safe. When their assumptions about the world are jarred by a crisis, such as loss of a family member or immigration and resettlement, there is a natural resistance to change, a looking back at the old (what is now lost) and a reluctance to look to the future (what is unknown). Resolution of this crisis comes with identifying what has been lost from the past and reformulating this into a new framework of understanding and meaning for the present. This process is exhaustive, containing a range of difficult emotions, and occurs over a period of time. It may take years and for some people in certain circumstances, never seems to be completely resolved. What seems to be important is not the loss itself but the attitude one takes toward the loss. Rituals, religious beliefs, customs and community all play a part in resolution. However, what also appears important is the amount of exploration of thoughts and feelings as well as increased self-awareness created by the experience. In order to heal, one needs to understand what has been lost and what has been changed.

Grief, the response to loss, is normally described as moving through stages from shock and denial at the loss to a period of intense affect, and then to acceptance and resolution. This process takes time and the grieving person is felt to move back and forth between these stages.

There are a number of factors that seem to influence the process of resolution of grief:

1) the number of losses
2) the suddeness of the loss (amount of preparation)

sense of control over the loss
3) the age of the person
4) a history of earlier losses
5) basic mental health of the person (previous depressive episodes
6) a conflicted relationship with a lost person: either denial of conflict or excessive dependency
7) social support; helpful vs. non-helpful
8) religion, custom and cultural norms related to loss
9) prohibited expression of any feelings by the family
10) one's attitude or stance in life toward change, pain and suffering.

There are two major types of problematic grieving. One is the inhibition of a grief response at the loss. The other is protracted or perpetual grieving. It appears that people who inhibit all expression of grief or thoughts about the loss, particularly immediately following the event, are more at risk for continuing long term distress such as depression, psychosomatic illnesses or difficulties with intimacy, than those who do express some emotion. Also at risk for depression and illness is the perpetual griever. Being stuck in the past, the perpetual griever stops living in the present which creates difficulties for friends and family. Both of these states seem to be brought on by fear. With the inhibited griever, the fear is one of becoming overwhelmed by pain and literally falling apart or going crazy. Grief, if started, is seen as interminable. For the perpetual griever, the fear is of letting go of the past, of memories fading. Grief is seen as a means to hold on to the lost person or place. The perpetual grieving person is expressing his or her fear of the future and sense of powerlessness to create a new world of memories and meaning.

It is apparent resolving grief takes time and involves a wide range of thoughts, feelings and behaviors. Support during the time of crisis is important to healthy resolution of grief. The grieving person needs to tell his or her story many times. The events surrounding the loss may be understood but the feelings connected to the experience may not be. Exploring oneself and one's feelings is difficult and requires the presence of a non-judgemental listener. Thus, it is important to train teachers and counselors how to listen and respond.

FOCUS OF THE PRESENTATION

Helping people cope with loss and change requires a long term, multifaceted approach. Counselors and teachers need to be sensitive to a number of factors involved with the loss and to develop intervention strategies that take into account the changing nature of the grief process over time. The resolution of grief is a multidimensional process involving cognitive, affective and behavioral functioning. The counselor or teacher must take into account the age of the person and level of cognitive, social and moral development. Cultural norms and religious beliefs are also important. Counselors must examine their own biases surrounding the experience of loss and grief and be aware of cross-cultural values. Knowing what intervention may be necessary with what individual in what circumstance, requires flexibility and great sensitivity on the part of the helper.

This presentation will focus on a long term developmental model of grief counseling that can be adapted to fit the age of the person being counseled and the circumstances of the loss. The goal of the model is to create healthy adaptation to loss and change as well as facilitate the growth of the individual. During my talk, I will be describing the model more clearly and suggesting interventions for different ages at different points in the grief process. Particular attention will be given to the importance of cultural and religious beliefs as they relate to the model. It is my desire to encourage audience response to the model and to stimulate an exchange of ideas between east and west on the importance of training counselors and teachers now in the area of grief counseling.

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CONSCIOUSNESS RAISING IN WOMEN AND COUNSELOR'S ROLE

Yukiko Kurato(Osaka Jogakuin Junior College)

I. PURPOSE

The purpose of this paper is to report author's experiences of relating Japanese female college students in both class-room consciousness raising activities in Psychology class and individual counseling sessions. The author is a humanistically oriented teacher as well as counselor.

Also some research results on Purpose In Life Test by Crumbaugh and Maholik will be examined.

II. METHOD

Among 2,000 students who took the Interdisciplinary course, those who enrolled the Psychology class exceeded over 1,000 students during past ten years. Those 1,000 students were potential subjects for this study, of which served were a fewer and varying number of subjects for each category of this study.

1)Psychology Class

(1)Consciouness Raising Activities in the Class Room.

Since 1980, the author has been teaching Psychology class for freshmen in a junior college for women in which consciousness raising in women was taken up as class room issue. This Psychology class has been held as one part of the Interdisciplinary course in which Sociology, Education and Philosophy are also taught to the same end by different instructors.

In other words, those students who have been enrolled to the class are required to take four parts of the course, each approaching consciousness raising. Each part is consisted with 2 hours in a week for 10 to 12 weeks. The class is open both in the first and the second semesters, and the students are assigned to take the class in either semesters according to alphabetical order of their names.

(2)The Class Hour Construction for Pychology Class.

Some experience-oriented learnig opportunities, aiming at consciousness raising, described latter, were offered with a series of lectures supporting above experiential learning opportunities. Each class hour was constructed as follows:

Review(Previous week)	10 minutes
Presentation	20
Experience	
Introduction	5
Exercise	10
Sharing	20
Report	10
Underling theory by instructor	15
Writing journal	15
Total	105

(3)The Contents of the Class Hour.

Week		Contents
1	Theme	The meaning of Self-Awareness through exercise.
	Exercise	Patting shoulders with a couple.
	Theory	Self-Awareness and Self-disclosure.
2	Theme	Awareness Zones through exercise.
	Exercise	Sensory awareness exercise and Sentence Completion exercise of [I see /I imagine] by Perls,F. and others.
	Theory	Awareness Zones, Anxiety and Projection
3	Theme	To aware how I live (1)Choice.
	Exercise	Sentence Completion exercise of [I should /I choose to] by Perls,F.and others.
	Theory	Personanity structure by Freud,S.
4	Theme	To aware how I live (2)Possibility.
	Exercise	Sentence Completion exercise of [I can't /I won't] by Perls,F. and others.
	Theory	Personality structure by Perls,F.and Self-actualization by Goldstein,K.
5	Theme	Polarities.
	Exercise	[The aspects I like and dislike] by the author.

	Theory	Perspective in Figure/Ground and Self-Acceptance .
6	Theme	To aware how I live (3)Identity.
	Exercise	Imagery Experience of [I am a rose bush] by Stevens,J.
	Theory	Perception and Identity.

2)Individual Counseling Sessions

The author is also a counselor at the Student Counseling Room and meets students who are in need. Four to seven students are the constant weekly clients who disseminate a great deal of information on the women's problems of the present day Japan. The author has been a counselor for 10 years and has gained a knowledge about what would like some of the women's problems to be, which has helped to develop the Psychology class reported in this paper.

3)Measurement For The Effects Of The Class.

The effects that influenced the students were measured by 1)observations, journals, and class reports. Observations were made by the author on the following points:which learning experiences were most accepted and difficult to students;whether there were any psychological damages during discussions. Journals were written in regard to how students increased self-awareness about themselves as they took the Psychology class. Journals were later categorized for analysis into 4 levels, which were basically taken from Rogers' Process Scale for Psychotherapy.Class reports were assigned at the end of the semester on which aspects the students learned most. Class reports were later categorized into 5 levels for analysis, which were developed by Kurato. 2)a questionnaire, Purpose in Life Test, constructed by Crumbaugh and Maholick(1964), was administrated three times (April, October and February) for each student before, after, and afeter 5 months of the class ended.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1)Observations.

Most accepted experiences were sensory awareness and sentence completion. On the other hand, most difficult experiences were imagery and [The aspects I like and dislike]. The students seemed to have enjoyed sharing their experiences, spending their time fully and enthusiastically. Nevertheless, expression or verbalization of their emotion/emotional experiences was difficult to most students.

2)Journals.

Results from analysis of journals were as follows($n=90$);

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
Unchanged	Understanding	Self-acceptance	Action
4.4%	47.8%	40.0%	7.8%

This shows that students have gained an understanding about self, self-acceptance, and action (A Pearson's χ^2 =51.57<0.01 df=2) This is a favorable result. However, more action taking will be encouraged in the future. For this, the instructor will be expected to get more involved in the learning process.

3)Class report.

Results from analysis of class reports were as follows($n=144$);

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Unchanged	Intellectual understanding	Experience with emotion	Restructuring	Action
5.5%	22.2%	26.4%	31.9%	13.9%

Also this indicates that there were more students who raised consciousness than those who didn't chnage(χ^2=183.34<0.01 df=2) Again, action will be a future goal in this type of experience and instructor's role will be directly related.

4)Purpose In Life Test.

Results of the test were shown as follows($n=89$);

	Before	After	5 monthes later
	93	91	94
SD	11.7	14.9	13.5

Points on Purpose In Life Test tended to decrease after taking Psychology class, but increased 5 monthes later. This reveals that students tended to face themselves more seriously and realistically by learning about themselves through Psychology class, hence once found a negative side of the self which was more realistic to themselves and accordingly decreased their points. But as time passed students gradually became able to restore or gain strength in themselves or look more bright side of the self, hence increased their points.

Below are some of the descriptions about how students experienced in the class; When I was unable to verbalize my experiences logically, I was irritated. But after having shared feelings with words each other, it became fun and I felt relieved. I experienced that it's impossible to undestand each other without communicating my feelings. I felt responsible for my partner after I got involed in her and knew her feelings. I was relieved when I became aware that I had been so dependent that I thougt everything was under the control of my parents, not knowing there might be some chances for me to develop my own thoughts and behavior. Now I see a whole new world standing before me. I felt more responsible as well as freedom when I experienced that I could choose things. I became aware that I had not helped myself grown fully. I had so many shoulds". It was encouraging, and I felt confident, for me to find my positive aspects.

These may sound very simple, but to the most female college students who live in a country like Japan where females are still treated as anything less important, these might be an initial and necessary step that students might have to learn toward consciousness raising in women. And the counselor will be expected to take a helping role, that is, attending and listening to the students, letting them to make choices by themselves, not pushing any counselor's value judgements on them. In conclusion, the more the students bocome interested in their consciousness raising, the more the counselor may have chances to exercise their helping roles.

Self Esteem Issues Among Chinese Immigrants

by

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Introduction

This presentation has evolved from several presentations given over the last four years about the counseling services provided at our community college center in San Francisco and is based upon my work with the Chinese adult immigrant students in the English as a Second Language classes.

In my graduate studies, the Western/European psychological theories were the core of my social work curriculum and I would constantly struggle with them and question the relevance to non-Western/European cultures. Along with other Asians in the field, we tried to examine the Chinese culture for a Chinese model of mental health and appropriate counseling strategies as well as determine the possible applications or adaptations, the usefulness or uselesssness of the Western model with an Asian population.

From an accumulation of work experiences with Chinese immigrants and personal experiences growing up in an immigrant family, I felt that I had developed some understanding of the problems and needs of Chinese immigrants and wanted to share the knowledge and skills I acquired with others. In the process of organizing my thoughts and conceptualizing them in a meaningful and clear fashion for a presentation, I found myself falling back on those same theories taught in graduate school. Today, I will discuss how Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs can be used to analyze the immigrant experiences. I will also suggest how to extend beyond this Western framework into a cross-cultural perspective. The function of our counseling services at school is to help bridge the gap for the immigrant student between the home he's left with the new home he's entering. The purpose of this presentation is to likewise bridge an understanding of the immigrant experience using both Eastern and Western points of view.

Immigration

When one talks about immigration, a travelling scene is conjured up, which on the surface appears similar to visiting a foreign country. Before taking a trip to another country, one plans and prepares in advance by asking other people for information and advice, getting guidebooks and other literature about the place to be visited, obtaining traveller's checks and some foreign currency, and maybe even picking up a simple dictionary or phrase book. But a vacation and even schooling or working abroad are temporary and you can still enjoy your visit even without knowing the language.

Immigration, on the other hand is rather permanent. You literally pull up stakes and transport yourself and a few possessions to a new home in a new environment. You may have given this move a great deal of thought and talked to a number of people about it but you won't really know what it's going to be like until you're there engaged in the day-to-day tasks. And since you can't take everything with you, you feel like you're starting out all over. If you're a parent, you know that despite all your attempts to prepare yourself for parenting, there's no way you could have readied yourself for the round-the-clock feedings or the endless diaper changes or perhaps the colicky cries. And the infancy years are only the beginning of a lifelong committment to parenting. Similarly, immigrating is a beginning of a journey into part known and part unknown territory. Others may have travelled the path before but each one sails a different course. And, relocating one's residence is stressful even if you are just moving down the block - so you can imagine the impact of a trans-Pacific move.

So, why does one immigrate? Besides the imminent status change of Hong Kong, some basic reasons for the immigration of Chinese to the United States are: (1) in general, a better life or future, particularly for the children, (2) more educational opportunities for the children, and (3) family reunification.

While San Francisco was named "Gum Sam" or Gold Mountain by the Chinese in the mid 1800's when the news of the California Gold Rush reached China, the U.S. today still is envisioned as the "land of golden opportunities." The expectations thus are: (1) life will be easier and better, i.e. do not need to work so hard, can earn good money, money is plentiful (gold can be picked off the streets), (2) there will be a harmonious family life i.e. it will be good to establish or re-establish the family ties or extended family network, and (3) the children will grow up educated, successful, and well-to-do.

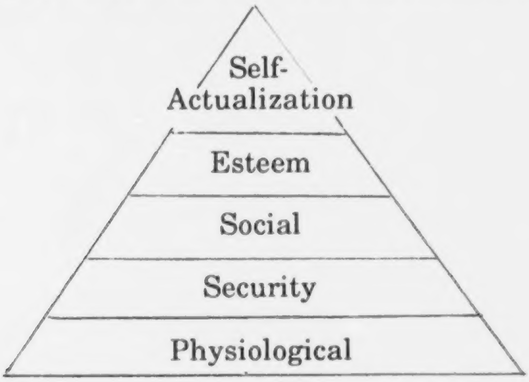
The immigrant then is confronted with three very different sets of emotional states: (1) the elated feelings associated with the hopes and dreams, (2) the sadness incurred in separation and loss, and (3) the anxieties of adjusting and adapting in coping with the move. These comprise the emotional or psychological baggage that the immigrant brings to America, the contents of which become worn or torn in the process of making a new life in a new home.

Following a honeymoon period that will vary for each immigrant, the problems may emerge slowly or dramatically, one-by-one or meshed together. (Just as parenting is a different experience for each parent, so are the experiences for each immigrant different, i.e. the types and extent of the problems will vary. This discussion generalizes the experience and may seem overly biassed with negative examples. The problems are emphasized here in order to provide a basis for problem-solving.) The hopes and dreams turn into disappointments and disillusionments when the realization sets in that life is not easier or better, that it is hard to get a job because of lack of English or job skills; that family life with the sponsored relatives is not harmonious; that the nuclear family even becomes divided as role reversals occur within the immigrant family; that the children whom the immigrant has invested his future may not want to or be able to comply with the wishes of the parents; and that even the basic survival issues become inadequately handled.

Theoretical Framework

I would like to borrow a fairy tale, "Jack and the Beanstalk" from the children's library and use it as an analogy to the tasks faced by the immigrant. America, the land of opportunity, is the kingdom of the giant. Now, if you can get the magic beans that will produce the beanstalk (or ladder of success), climb it successfully and overcome the unforeseen but very real giant obstacles, you may be able to bring home success, wealth, and happiness. Another analysis is the application of the "ends justifies the means" in which it is O.K. to be greedy and even steal and harm others in order to take care of your own needs. Another extrapolation might be that you need to be clever and assertive (or the opposite, deceitful, cunning, and manipulative) about your needs and also, that you need to be brave, adventurous, and competent - even taking risks - in order to survive. I leave the rest of the analysis for you to play with and to interpret how this relates to the Chinese immigrant seeking a better life in America.

Now, let us go to the psychology section of a university library for a more theoretical analysis and select the work of Abraham Maslow. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is structured as a pyramid and in order to reach the top, which is called "self-actualization", one needs to adequately satisfy the other needs. I will first take each one separately and identify the "obstacles" or problems encountered by the immigrant in dealing with these needs. Then I will suggest ways in which these needs might be resolved. Last, I will propose a Chinese perspective on self-esteem. (Please do not hesitate to ask questions or offer your experiences or ideas.)



Categories	Obstacles	Suggestions
PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS - Shelter, Food, Clothing	These are basic survival needs that in this country are dependent upon money, which is normally obtained through work. But employment is not all that accessible and available to the immigrant, whose lack of English and job skills present obstacles in getting a good or well paying job. Staying with relatives or being financially dependent on them is usually a temporary arrangement. Even if the immigrant is self-supporting, finding affordable, suitable housing can be another obstacle.	Provide ESL & Vocational Programs and assistance with housing, employment, childcare, and other concerns.
SECURITY NEEDS - Sense of Trust & Comfort	While it is an adventure to leave the warmth and safety of a nest to explore new places, it would be traumatic to return to find a nest gone. In immigrating , only part of a nest can be transplanted and a warm and safe atmosphere must be re-created or developed in the new surroundings. This can be quite a huge obstacle given the probable encounters with culture shock or cultural conflicts. Besides unfamiliarity with the physical environment (i.e. bus routes; location of stores, post office, schools, medical facilities, banks, etc.; U.S. currency), there is also the lack of awareness of - and often differences in - social customs, cultural values, personal habits, etc. There may be shifts in the traditional family structure as the wife may become an equal bread-winner or the children may become the interpreter and act as a liaison between the family and their new environment. All of this together with the disappointments and disillusionments make it difficult to feel trusting in a new country.	Provide Cultural Orientation and include information regarding American culture, customs, and values; community resources; and counseling or supportive services to facilitate the adjustment process.

SOCIAL NEEDS - Sense of Belongingness & Love	The separation and loss issues concern attachments and the permanency of object relations or "I'm always there for you", and the severing of those bonds. When you immigrate, "old ties" are left behind (although the friendships and support can be somewhat maintained through correspondence and phone calls) and the task is to build new relationships and support networks. The immigrant may look forward to warm familial ties with the relatives in America, but find strained relations instead. A "long time" immigrant may no longer share the values or views that the new immigrant brings over from China. Then, how does one begin to make new friends? How does the immigrate relate to the non-Chinese population given the language and cultural gaps? While many immigrants would like to participate in social activities, they find their time and energy focused on the more immediate issues of basic survival.	Immigrants need to seek social contacts beyond their relatives. Work, school, church, family associations, and other community organizations can be sources for new friends. The adult school is a good setting to facilitate new relationships i.e. making friends with classmates, establishing rapport with teachers or counselors, participating in extracurricular activities such as student clubs or school functions. Even some workplaces have company picnics or "office" parties to celebrate birthdates, holidays, and other special events.
ESTEEM	In order to achieve esteem, one must have satisfied the previous needs (the bottom three sections of the pyramid). Although the immigrant was quite capable of meeting these needs in the home country (and probably felt good about the accomplishments), these tasks cannot be so easily or readily mastered in the new country. Besides, the skills that were used successfully in the home country may not be adequate or appropriate in the new country. For example, there is a pool of immigrants with a medical background from China but they can not practice medicine in the U.S. without obtaining the medical license here. Since many of them do not have the English proficiency to pass the medical exam or even to work as an assistant in a medical setting, they have no alternative but to resort to "working below their station." For a Chinese male immigrant, the loss of professional status can be combined with some loss in his authority as head of the household if the wife works or if a child becomes the interpreter for the family. Given these reasons and the unmet expectations and adjustment difficulties, the immigrant may suffer a loss of esteem or even become depressed.	Instead of passively accepting the situation, the immigrant needs to learn to just acknowledge the situation and then move on, i.e. setting more realistic and manageable goals and finding satisfaction or pleasure in meeting these goals which might be to pass a beginning ESL course or accumulate "X" amount in the bank. Receiving a bonus, award, or even a compliment at work might also add to one's sense of accomplishment.

SELF - ACTUALIZATION

The tip of the pyramid is small - Maslow believed that we could only achieve a few "peak experiences" in our lifetime. Again, the immigrant may have experienced this "tip" in the home country but to reach it in a foreign setting is indeed a challenge given all the obstacles previously discussed. To be self-actualized is to develop one's potentials, to realize one's individual self. The immigrant may need to redefine his/her potentials or individuality as may be appropriate for the new environment.

A "peak experience" may not be of "one's own" rather a vicarious experience of accomplishments of others - this idea will be elaborated in the later discussion on a Chinese perspective.

A Chinese Perspective

Beginning again with the bottom of Maslow's pyramid, I will now redefine this hierarchy from a Chinese traditional perspective. While the *Physiological Needs* appear as basically materialistic necessities, it is within the Chinese culture to express love concretely through the provisions of food, shelter, and clothing. Thus, the father shows his love for his family by working hard to ensure that there is ample food for everyone while the mother will always reserve the best piece of chicken or the freshest fruit for the children. It is important to note however, that the reverse is not true - that is, it does not mean that parents do not love their family should they are unable to provide adequately for their family. This situation may be regarded as one's unfortunate fate and beyond anyone's responsibility.

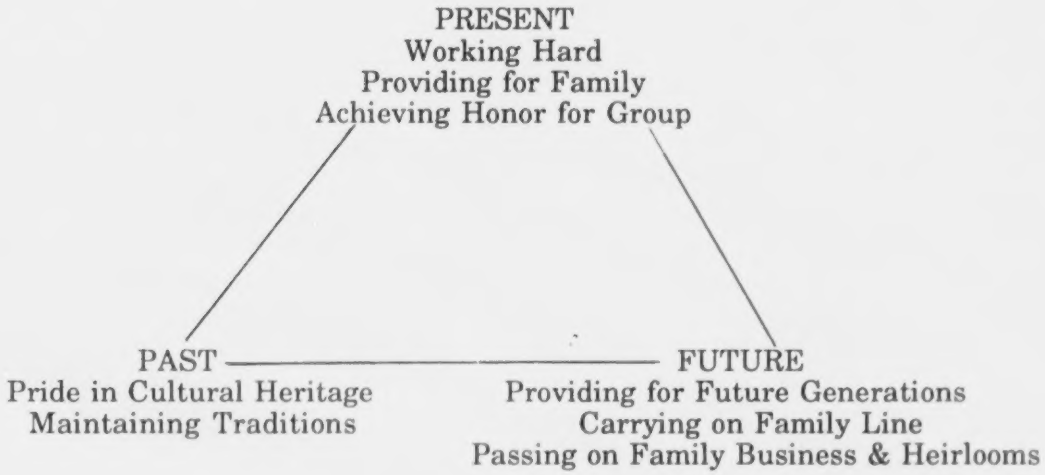
The establishment of order is essential to the sense of *Security* and is achieved through the adherence to customs, traditions, and rituals. These cultural codes or protocols dictate proper behavior and define roles and relationships. One of the highest principle in Confucianism is that of filial piety - a concept of respect, obligation, and selflessness that a child has toward a parent. Non-compliance to the cultural expectations might disrupt the harmony in the society, create friction between family members, or cause one to be removed from the family.

Belongingness is foremost in the Chinese culture because of the emphasis of the group over the individual. The Chinese person, therefore, is always considered as a member of a group - beginning with family membership and ending in a "national identity." And each group is a subgroup of another. For example, you belong to your nuclear family but your nuclear family is part of the extended clan, the extended clan is part of the local village, and so on. Besides the natural and convenient social contacts already available in these group settings, the focus of "groupness" also promotes the value of interdependence.

In Maslow's hierarchy, the issue of *Esteem* is one of individual pride or self worth - basically, an ego-oriented concept. In contrast, the Chinese culture values humility, which in some ways can repress confidence or competence. Again, the Chinese do not promote themselves as individuals or foster individualism. The concept of esteem would be tied to family honor, pleasing parents, saving face, proper behavior, respecting authority and the like - in other words, maintaining the sense of order. To acknowledge one's own accomplishments would be arrogant, to choose differently than your parents would be defiant, to seek independence or individuality would be shameful or selfish. However, if you follow societal rules and cultural norms, then you would reflect the good upbringing by your parents.

Since "self" is almost an non-entity in the Chinese culture, *Self-Actualization* is not a "personal experience." I surmise that a Chinese parent feels "actualized" through the achievements of his or her children. In particular, when the children become successful adults, then the parents can take pride - whether secretly and covertly or when publicly praised by others - without feeling boastful. This is the "vicarious experience". A possible exception to this "non-self" actualization would be during the later years of life. As an elder, you can step back and reflect on your accomplishments such as your contributions to the successes of your adult children, the growth of the extended family, or a nice "nest egg" in the bank. You can now sit back and enjoy the "fruits of your labor" and "receive back" all the nurturance, hard work, and sacrifices that you may have made during your lifetime of putting the family needs above your own.

While this step is reached last, the other needs are not so clear as to their hierarchical order. Perhaps, it is the concept of time not needs that is the criteria for "self-actualization". That is, over time, one will be eventually"actualized". This model might be depicted as a triangle:


PRESENT
Working Hard
Providing for Family
Achieving Honor for Group
PAST
Pride in Cultural Heritage
Maintaining Traditions
FUTURE
Providing for Future Generations
Carrying on Family Line
Passing on Family Business & Heirlooms

Conclusion

These proposals of a Chinese model are by far incomplete and unfortunately, not substantiated by any concrete evidence or research. It is only my attempt to conceptualize a framework and propose some strategies in assisting Chinese immigrants to pursue their dreams in America and to live a fuller life here. I am open to your feedback and hope that you will refute me if my ideas seem invalid or inaccurate and share your experiences and understandings. I would also encourage that you develop models for your own particular client population or cultural group.

When this presentation was given at a our district's counselors' conference, one counselor commented about the role of delayed or deferred gratification in the Asian culture. This might apply to the immigrant parent delaying his/her own self-actualization needs in order to cater to the immediate needs of the family. Or as mentioned before, waiting to vicariously experience the success of the children would be a deferred gratification for one's own esteem needs.

Another counselor suggested a model of integration. While he did not elaborate the specifics of such a model, the essence was that immigrants do not have to merely accept or adapt to the new culture but to integrate aspects of the two cultures.

This presentation has been focused on some of Maslow 's ideas but I have also given some thought to other theorists, particularly Erik Erikson and his eight stages of development: Trust vs Mistrust, Autonomy vs Shame and Doubt, Initiative vs Guilt, Industry vs Inferiority, Identity vs Role Confusion, Intimacy vs Isolation, Generativity vs Stagnation, and Ego Integrity vs Despair.

I postulate that the new immigrant "starts all over" developmentally when he/she starts all over in a new country - like a "newborn", being "born" into a new culture. Similar to Maslow's *Security Needs*, basic *trust* must be developed for the new environment. In Stage 2, the new immigrant may hold on to "cultural ties" but may also need to let go of habits and rituals that may not work in the new country. While attempting to gain mastery (*autonomy*) and feel some control of being in new territory, the immigrant may encounter *shame* for not speaking English properly or *doubt* in his/her ability to move ahead in a job. The young adult who may be dealing with issues of *intimacy* or seeking meaningful relationships may face *isolation* upon arrival in a new country. He/she may regress to Stage 5 (as well as to the other earlier stages) in order to redefine his/her *identity* as affected by another set of ideas and values. There may be some *role confusion* due to the different cultural expectations and behaviors for adolescents. Likewise, an adult immigrant may feel *stagnant* because he/she is unable to find meaningful and productive employment that makes use of his/her skills or expertise. This list of examples could go on and more in-depth analysis could be provided but we do have a time limit. So I would like to leave this for you to think about and to generate your own interpretations and applications for your client group.

Thank you for listening to my ideas.

WHOLISTIC GROWTH AS THE ULTIMATE GOAL OF SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

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In whatever we do in our daily life, we, more often than not, only make a start on it when we are sure what our goals are. Having the right goal not only can save us from a waste of time, but can also bring us the desired results. It is therefore a real pity that for years, the topic of counseling goal has been overlooked in the profession of Counseling (1).

As a matter of fact, the question of counseling goal is seldom mentioned in writings by the academics. The reason for this is very complicated and here, I just want to discuss it with you briefly from an angle that is of much interest to me. A discussion of counseling goal will naturally touch on the value system and the life outlook of counselors. Usually we would ask ourselves: "As a professional counselor, are the goals we set in tune with the people's expectations?" The same discussion will also touch on the results that we would like to see. There are some crucial questions that we are all concerned with, like "What should the goals of counseling be?" "What do we want to get out of counseling?" and "What is the ideal outcome of counseling?" These questions are undoubtedly very sensitive ones but they are so basic that shunning them is tantamount to running away from our professional duties.

If we compare the topic of counseling goal with other topics in the field of counseling, we will see that there has not been much academic discussion about it. The few academics who have cared to discuss it do differ greatly from one another in their viewpoints and I am in support of the position that goals should be set at different levels (2). It is my belief that guided by ultimate goal, a counselor can set immediate and direct goals for his client according to the latter's personal needs so as to achieve the optimal results. Here in Hong Kong, our youths are brought up in a very unique environment and our education system has a special role to play in meeting the challenges posed by the changing cultural milieu and political circumstances. Against this background, I venture to put forward "Wholistic Growth" as the ultimate goal of counseling in the hope that better school counseling service can be rendered to students in Hong Kong. However, the limited length of this paper only allows me to go into the theoretical framework of my proposal but not its methodology or implementation.

(A) FACING THE DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS OF STUDENTS IN HONG KONG SQUARELY

(1) A generation that is alone and lonely

Everyone of us is born with the need to establish good interpersonal relationships. Unfortunately, researches have shown that one of the most serious problems faced by students in Hong Kong is the "feeling of estrangement" which embodies powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation and self-estrangement (3). Recent years have seen the quickening of the tempo of city life, the drop in the quality of community life, the erection of walls amongst peers, the weakening of kinship ties, the tottoring and disintegration of the institution of family as well as the estrangement between teachers and students. All these, when coupled with the ascendence of individualism, have turned the youths in Hong Kong into a generation that is lonely despite all its boisterousness. They are, in fact, constantly in a state of anxiety and uneasiness. As man is a relational being, he certainly needs to establish relationships with others throughout his life before he can be satisfied. He is born with the needs to feel secured, to love and be loved, to "belong" as well as to be accepted. The virtues of loyalty, filial piety, kindness and righteousness and the five cardinal relationships (monarch and official, father and son, husband and wife, brothers, and friends) so strongly emphasized in the Chinese culture are in essence the concrete manifestation of our attaching great importance to interpersonal relationships.

Data gathered in a local research reveal that secondary students are generally unable to form deep relationships with others. They consider people as selfish and unreliable. 40% of them even believe that "one's best friend is likely to be one's enemy" (4). Furthermore, about one-half of the junior secondary students feel lonely because they cannot find anyone to talk to from their families and peers (5). Constantly perturbed by problems inherent in the process of growing up, they suffer and are at a loss. The saddest thing is that some of them would make wrong choices and set for a course of life marked by one mistake after the other.

(2) A generation that finds self-identification extremely difficult

Erickson holds that the most important task for one to fulfil in one's adolescence is to preserve a pronounced sense of identity. What concerns us is that the youths in Hong Kong do experience great difficulties in fulfiling this particular task. To begin with, while self-identification is attributed to academic achievement, I regret to say the education system of Hong Kong offers little chance of achievement to the students. On the contrary, it has produced numerous unnecessary "losers" over the years. Failure in school will definitely bring a sense of shame and belittlement to the loser if he gets no support or sympathy from his parents and teachers.

Youths do need support from adults in their searching for the self. Nevertheless, teachers often overlook their own duties because of the heavy teaching load and the mislaid emphasis of the local education system. As for the parents, we of course have a lot of parents who spare no pains in nurturing their children, but we also have many parents who are too preoccupied with earning a livelihood to care for their children. Parents, as a whole, may have difficulties in child rearing. They may either be too demanding, too strict or too lax with their children. They may even have their own marital problems to care for. Problem parents and broken families are so very common these days that the youths, instead of enjoying steady growth under proper care at home, are often neglected and hurt at home. The result of this is a broken self concept riddled with self debasement and self-pity.

In this society, the youths will quickly learn that they are assessed according to "what they have" and "what they achieve". Unable to establish their own worth, they live a life of stress and frustration. This, together with the prevailing social values like "money is all important" and "proverty is to be laughed at but not prostitution" will easily drive them off the right path in life.

Sex roles is yet another developmental problem faced by the youths in Hong Kong, who experience conflicts in areas of schooling, sexual freedom, family responsibilities and career. It has been found that the problem is more serious amongst females.

Identity crisis, as a matter of fact, is very common amongst the secondary students in Hong Kong (6). Suffering from a poor self-concept, they consider themselves not as good looking as the others and are doubtful of their own abilities. They feel small and worthless. They are upset and disturbed because seeing themselves as good for nothing, they just do not love themselves (7). Today, with the 1997 issue heating up, this new generation that fails to take its root either in family, school or society has to face the grave issue of national identity as well. This makes it all the more difficult for them to acquire their self-identities.

(3) A generation in desperate search of root in the face of a new sovereignty

People in Hong Kong reacted strongly to the democratic movement and its subsequent suppression by the Beijing government in May and June, 1989. On two different occasions in late May, one million and one-and-a-half millions people took to the street respectively in protest against the political clampdown. Hong Kong people were coming out of the cocoon of "political apathy" and many frankly admitted that they truly felt themselves Chinese for the first time in their life. It is clear that the patriotism of students and residents in Beijing has prompted the people in Hong Kong to reflect on their root as a nation and the affected ones include tens of thousands of young students.

Hong Kong recently saw the emergence of a new term - "The Hongkongese" which is in particular popular amongst youths. They call themselves the Hongkongese and are proud of being as such. The truth of the matter is that the secondary students in Hong Kong generally have a strong sense of belonging and feel obligated to build up Hong Kong (8). Brought up in a colony, they do not have strong national sentiments. The tragic yet solemn democractic movement that took place in China months ago did make them eager in searching for their root, but getting to know the Beijing government also brought with it mistrust, fear and disgust. Now, the question before them is the ascertainment of one's national identity: "Who are we? Hongkongese, Chinese or British dependent territories citizens?" The process of finding an answer to such a question will prove to be full of pains and conflicts for sure.

The youths in Hong Kong often mock themselves as "a rootless generation". It really hurts to hear such self-derision. They are already perturbed by all kinds of developmental problems and the grave issue of national identification brought by the approach of 1997 just makes them even more bewildered and lost. Yet who in their families and schools and society cares enough to accompany them in their search for their lost root?

(4) A generation besetted with conflicts and confusions over sex value and moral principles

Hong Kong owes a lot to her unique geographical location in becoming a famous international city. In this island where the east meets the west, many traditional values are being challenged. At a time when a new set of values is still in the making, even a lot of adults are at a loss. The youths are naturally all the more confused since they also have to cope with the various problems inherent in the process of growing up.

The youths enter a new phase of life at the time of puberty. The secretion of sex hormones makes them interested in and curious about the opposite sex. This does have an impact on their psychology. The youths in Hong Kong are exposed to sexual stimulation everyday, but unfortunately, they are unable to get proper help from their parents, teachers and social workers for their sexual perturbation. When these people are relinquishing their share of the task of sex education, the mass media simply step in and spare no pains in promoting a distorted view of sex. Everyday, we have about twenty cinemas showing blue movies in the densely populated areas and in almost every newspaper stand, there are several pornographic articles displayed conspiciously. As for the other means of mass communication that find their way to each and every family, like TV, radio, videotapes, periodicals and newspapers, they also jump on the wagon and often promote values and life styles that are very much distorted. In the face of so many impacts, without the assistance and guidance of the adults, the youths not only do not know how to deal with their sexual desires but will also experience confusions and conflicts in their sex roles (9). Moreover, they are doubtful and lost over the institutions of marriage and family as well as ethical principles. Consequently, they adopt for a wasped life outlook and are off course in both their behaviour and ways of living.

(5) A generation marked by the absence of ideals and a high drop-out rate

Another inclination of the youths in Hong Kong that worries me is that they are very practical and do not care about ideals. Researches have shown that they agree with the following so-called "maxims": "Life is so fleeting that one must enjoy while one can", "One works to make money", "It is not practical to talk of ideals in Hong Kong", and "If it is destined to be yours, you'll get it; if not, forget it".(10) Their attitude towards life has a bent for hedonism which, however, is coloured by a sense of "helplessness".

The above picture indicates to us that the youths in Hong Kong suffer from an "ideological vacuum". The real problem is that when one does not have an ideal to pursue in life, one would turn to material comforts and sensory stimulations for gratification. Afterall, it is so very easy for one to be practical rather than idealistics, therefore, in the two important areas of studies and career, the youths just make their choices according to market demand and economic return. Their own interests, aptitudes and ideals count little, so are the meaning of work and the importance of personal development. As a result, a lot of students do not throw themselves into their studies. They get no satisfaction from their school life and many even give up schooling in the hope of finding a shortcut to success.

Data collected by the Education Department reveal that the drop-out rate amongst primary and secondary students in Hong Kong has been very high in recent years. C.S. CHEUNG and K.F. LEUNG pointed out that the main reason for the youths quitting school is the lack of interest in studies (11). Their conclusion is quite consistent with the results of other researches conducted locally. (12) Nevertheless, it seems that all along, we have overlooked the great impact caused by the relationship between the "ideological vacuum" and one's decision to quit school. Leaving school in one's teenage means a diversion of one's life course and very often, a rash decision made in the early years will often turn out to be one's greatest regret in life in later years. Cases of this nature are in fact very common in my experience in adult counseling.

For years, school guidance and counseling has been focusing its attention mainly on the so-called "problem students". Those with mainfest problems and criminal behaviour are stressed eventhough they are the minority. Students of this category certainly need help, but they do not make up the entire clientile of school guidance and counseling. We have more students who exhibit no deviant behaviour like fighting, stealing or playing truant. yet hiding behind this "introvert" and "quiet" front may be much uneasiness, anxieties or even an inclination towards self-destruction, and these are the very ones that need timely help from their teachers. As for the students in general who are in the majority, they need guidance in meeting the challenges coming up everyday in one's adolescence. To learn happily and to develop themselves, they need to have a warm relationship with both their classmates and teachers.

Maslow has suggested that human beings have a number of inborn basic needs. So what are these needs? It appears that we can answer the question with confidence for the youths in general but not the problem youths who are increasing in number every day. Yet if we care to carry out a thorough observation and a detailed analysis, we would easily find that the misconduct and criminal behaviour of the problem youths are mainly prompted by their need to regain their self-esteem and to be recognized and accepted by others again. They may break the school rules, have troubles with the law or even hurt themselves as well as the others, but they are just seeking love, security and a sense of belonging at all costs. Their ultimate goal, of course, is to find back their lost self. When we agree that what the youths value most and want most deep in their hearts is the satisfaction of those basic needs as described by Maslow, we would be more certain of the importance of school guidance and counseling. It is because the key function of such a service is to provide good interpersonal relationship and to meet the students' basic needs, in order to enable them to understand themselves, build positive self-concept and develop their potentials.

(B) LIMITATIONS AND SHORTCOMINGS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

(1) Strong emphasis on academic subjects to the neglect of wholistic education

Because of the pressure of open examination and the confusion over the goals of education, teachers in general only concern themselves with the imparting of textbook knowledge and pay little attention to their students' feelings, emotions, values and personality traits. Therefore, in the entire primary and secondary education system, the youths' emotional development is not taken care of. Students produced out of this type of one-sided education, though equipped with academic knowledge and certificates, may not have a healthy self-concept and personality. They do not know how to get along well with the others, nor do they have a clear life outlook. It is in fact for the successful educator to see that education is a process of learning to live while wholistic growth is the proper direction for education to make.

(2) Factory-type mass production to the neglect of students' individual differences

The most basic goal of schooling is to help each student develop his own potentials, and to enable him to understand his own self, his behaviour as well as the meaning of his existence so that he may enjoy a satisfying life (14). At the same time, academics, both Chinese and Western, all agree that for education to be successful, individual differences and needs must be taken into consideration so that a student may be taught in a way that he can benefit most (15). Unfortunately, the Hong Kong education system is operated like a factory. Mass production is what we have while little importance is attached to individual care. The school curricula in general not only cannot meet the needs of students of different endowments and aptitudes but also produce a large number of unnecessary losers day after day. Moreover, advanced developments in technology are dehumanizing the modern education system. This is a crisis that we cannot afford to overlook. A few years ago, a secondary school teacher told me that she decided to leave her school mainly because in going computerized, the school no longer allowed teachers to have a say in grading the students' conduct, which was to be solely determined by the computer according to the students' participation in extra-curricular programmes and services to the school. Such a trend of education being dehumanized is really worrying.

(3) Strong emphasis on rules and punishments to the neglect of the importance of a good learning environment to the students

As a tradition, schools in Hong Kong put strong emphasis on rules and punishments. And moreover, when the universal education policy has resulted in having good students intermingled with bad students, more often educators are driven to adopting draconian measures. Those who go to the extreme tend to look at students in a rather negative light. It follows that they do not trust or respect the students. Instead, they denounce and condemn the students. However, experiences have shown that such an attitude and working style are not helping problem students but are just turning them into even more problematic ones. As for the students in general, they feel estranged from their teachers. To them, the school is cold, frightening and full of threats. As a matter of fact, students learn better only when the school offers them warmth, trust and security. Silberman was so struck by the unfavourable learning environment that students found themselves in that he argued that the school system was interfering with education or worse still, destroying the function of education (16).

(4) Identity crisis of the youths intensified by loads of failures

Here in Hong Kong, educators find it very difficult to enable students to excel academically under a "pyramid" education system. Such limitation is of profound impact. Failure in school renders a student doubtful of his own worth and abilities. The losers are desperately in need of support from the grown-up, but what they are getting from their parents is often additonal pressure to do well in school since parents on the whole are keen on their children's becoming successful in life. Nor are they getting any recognition and understanding from their teachers. In the absence of support both at home and in school, the small group of better performing ones can still manage but the bulk of the student population just get stuck in a vicious cycle, destined to end up with a very poor self-concept. One is of course deeply influenced by one's parents. Yet the influence of one's teachers is not to be discounted.(17) To a student, teachers are such significant others in his life that the treatments and gradings he gets from them usually form the base on which he builds his self-concept. It is regrettable that under the "pyramid" education system, teachers in general measure students only in terms of academic performance. In the whole process of learning, many students often feel denounced and belittled by the school and the teachers, so much so that they eventually decided that they are in fact incapable, worthless and unlovable. The most horrible thing is that this poor self-concept often determines how a student is to work out his life in the days to come.

Scholars have shown great concern about the problem stated above. They stress that in the crisis of education becoming one-sided and dehumanized, attention must be *paid to keeping education wholistic and humanized. They* suggest that school guidance and counseling should be strengthened so as to take up this difficult yet unique task. It is hoped that with the counselors joining force with other educators, a humanized environment can be established in the school setting.(18) Admittedly, the imparting of academic knowledge is but a part of education. School guidance and counseling is there to pick up what the educators leave undone. With its emphasis on interpersonal relationships, it works for the students' healthy and maximum development by providing them with remedial, preventive and developmental services.(19)

If the wholistic function of education is overlooked by the school authorities, problems will crop up one after one. For example, apart from the well defined problems mentioned above, there are still a lot of problems of profound impact when the whole issue is studied at the macro-level. To-day, in this age of education all over the world and great advancement in technology, the greatest problem faced by mankind is not nuclear war or food shortage, but the breaking down of basic interpersonal relationships. This brings us the worst ever social problems and endless hostilities amongst nations. Consequently, men, instead of well enjoying the fruit of civilization, find their very existence being threatened. I am sorry to say that up till now, we are still tackling the problem at the superficial level. New strategies come one after another but so far, none has proven to be effective simply because the core of the problem has not been touched at all. Nonetheless, if we care to get to the root, we must admit that there is a need for good interpersonal relationships to be reorganized. The ultimate goal is peaceful co-existence with people caring for one antoher, accepting one another and respecting one another. This is a great undertaking in which schooling plays a very important role. As a matter of fact, schooling, directly or indirectly, affects the well-being of the entire community. It also sets the direction in which human existence goes.(20) As far back as twenty years ago, Leonard pointed out that the most important function of education is to teach everyone to understand the feelings of others. He considered harmonious interpersonal relationship and social skills necessary for achieving it crucial to human existence, even much more important than new laws and political strategies.(21) Students therefore should be taught in school to love other than the 3 Rs.(22) Only those with penetrating knowledge and insight are able to see that the solution of all these problems lies in the wholistic approach in education, but sadly enough, the suggestions made by them have not been taken seriously.

In Hong Kong, the student counseling service was first introduced in 1979 as an important part of the government's education policy. Regrettably, the education authorities all along do not have clear goals and firm convictions in the service. Even now, the service is still considered to be remedial while little importance is attached to its quality. It is looked upon as something that everyone can take up even without any professional knowledge and training.(23) The wrong concepts and attitude adopted by the Education Department do have adverse effects on the orientation of student counseling service in Hong Kong. They account for the poor results of the service and the worst of it all is that many eduators have been misled. This phenomenon deserves great attention because it has great impact on the proper development of school guidance and counseling.

(C) WHOLISTIC GROWTH AS THE ULTIMATE GOAL

(1) Man as nonfragmentizable

Over the past ten years, school guidance and counseling in Hong Kong has been in a state of confusion. Some interpret it as a means to deal with students' misbehavior.(24) Some regard giving occupational information as the crux of all counseling. Some think guidance and counseling as advice-giving only. And still there are others who tend to divide the students into parts, thinking that a student's problems can be isolated into educational, vocational, or personal ones.

Unfortunately, all these viewpoints fail to recognize that a student is nonfragmentizable and indivisible. Such a fragmentation of the individual has prevented the school and the guidance workers from having a deep dimension of the student's self, which surely has a significant impact on his total development. There are some people who may reject a wholistic concept in that they tend to think of problems of students as unrelated or unentwined with the students self-concept and its effect upon his functional behavior. But we cannot ignore the fact that the counselor approached by students with academic problems often find many other problems related to the present one, or such academic problems are in fact caused by other problems unaware by the student previously. Furthermore, a student's progress in vocational development is inextricably bound to his social and educational development; conversely they flow into the totality of his development. A local research indicated that junior high school have serious problems in their physical life, psychological life, family life, schooling and relationship with friends, and these five areas of problems are interrelated. (25)

(2) Developmental guidance and counseling and wholistic growth

Believing that the human person is indivisible and nonfragmentizable, I have chosen wholistic growth as the ultimate goal of school guidance and counseling. Guidance workers need to surrender the models that would compress human personality into airtight, sealed compartments. (26) If school guidance and counseling is truly to become effective, school counselor must emerge as people who are able to make significant contributions to meeting the developmental needs of their students mentioned above. He must comprehend the interrelatedness between a student's problems and needs. He must see the student as a functional sum, rather than a bundle of unrelated parts. If we hope to serve our students effectively, the wholistic growth of the individual rather than academic progress alone, which is often the only concern of most schools, should also be a prime concern. School guidance and counseling should aim at the provision of comprehensive services to each student by a broadly trained, developmentally oriented counselor who approaches the student as a person in an attempt to foster optimal development in the student. He cares about the physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of a student. Effective guidance and counseling, therefore, concentrates on the singular individuality of the wholistic student and the effective counselor interacts with the student in the process of becoming.

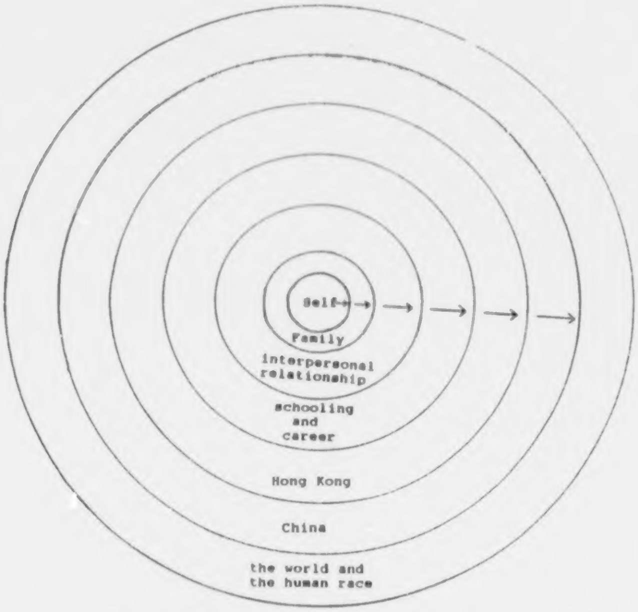
Philosophically speaking, developmental guidance and counseling is directed toward the achievement of personal adequacy and effectiveness through self-knowledge, the awareness of one's surroundings, a complete mastery of the relationship between self and environment. As a model, developmental guidance provides a base on which the student can build an understanding of self, environment, and the relationship of the two.

The concept of school guidance and counseling as a development process stresses help to all students in all areas and stages of their lives. It has been defined as having as its prime concern the positive growth and development of all students.(27) It is cumulative, or concerned with long-term growth rather than short-term growth, comprehensive rather than limited to the vocational or educational area.(28) If wholistic growth is truly our concern, a school counselor must offer varied and comprehensive programs to meet the pressing needs of our students in Hong Kong.

Problems and needs of youths in Hong Kong have been discussed previously. Among them all, I see identity crisis as the most serious problem they encountered, which is typified by expressions like "I don't know who I am"; "I am lost" and "We are the lost generation". Yes, many youths feel lost since they can hardly find their roots at home, in school and in the community. And in recent years, the 1997 issue has intensifed the feelings of rootlessness. In fact, a person would find life unstable and himself drifting along aimlessly if he feels rootless. He would also feel insecure and find life miserable. Conversely, when a person finds himself being able to take root in various dimensions of life, life to him then is expected a succession of success and joys since he is able to live adequately.

Refering to developmental guidance and with the problem of rootlessness of our students as my concern, I would like to propose a model of "Growing and Extending Life" (see chart I). It is hoped that it will provide us the direction and steps as well in our helping the students to achieve wholistic growth.

Chart I



A Model of "Growing and Extending" Life

Firstly, we ought to help our students to develop a positive view of themselves. It is so important because it will form the platform upon which other positive learning experiences can be built (29). Building a

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positive self-concept is not an easy task. But unless it is achieved, a person is expected to encounter many problems and miseries in life since self-concpet is an extremely powerful factor in the growth and development of human beings. For those who are able to develop an adequate self-concept and are gradually on their way of becoming, they will be able to experience life fully and differently through other learning process offered by the guidance and counseling program. Life should always be a process of becoming, growing and extending in the following sequence:

* building up a positive and healthy self-concept with the ability to love and to trust oneself;

* committed and devoted to one's family, enjoying family life and sailing through rough times with one's family members;

* having harmonious interpersonal relationships, basking in love and affection that make life so colourful;

* striving for better academic performance so as to pave the way for one's future career;

* active participation in society, serving the others and improving the community;

* identifying with and caring for China, sharing struggles and pains with one's fellow countrymen, having the courage to act and to shoulder up responsibilities when necessary;

* recognizing problems common to the world and mankind and to be truly concerned with them.

President John F. Kennedy once noted: "A boy and a girl have a limited time in their lives in which to get an education, and yet it will shape their whole lives and the lives of their children." (30) The school counselor has a unique role in the broad field of counseling. His contact with students during their formative years puts him in a strategic position to help prevent problems from emerging, rather than leaving them to the remedial services of other helping professions later in life. Moreover, since there has long been a neglect of the normal developmental needs of the average students, it is desirable to place the focus upon services that are developmental and preventive than curative and remedial.(31) It is my sincere concern that guidance and counseling in school must serve all students, with wholistic growth as the ultimate goal of our services.

A school guidance and counseling program without a goal can only function at a superficial level, paying attention to the consequentials rather than being sensitive to the more fundamental issues that influence the program's overt functioning. The appropriateness of wholistic growth as the ultimate goal of school guidance and counseling is directly related to the extent that educators and counselors can have the ability and vision to see beyond the immediate tasks involved in the daily routine of school life. Also, it is related to their ability to grasp the essence of the higher goal toward which these tasks are aimed.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACTS OF EMIGRATION ON THE HONG KONG CHILDREN

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In making their decision to migrate to a foreign country, most people would weigh important factors such as climate, language, cost of living, employment opportunities and housing costs. However, very few would consider the psychological impacts of such an action on themselves and on their children. In this paper, the authors will attempt to outline some of the impacts of migration on Hong Kong children relocating in a foreign country.

There are two important psychological tasks facing all emigrants, be they young or old. The tasks are (1) to be able to leave and mourn the loss of a familiar country and culture, and (2) to adapt and establish a new identity in the new country.

In our experience of working with emigrant families in the United States, we have found that there is a difference in the sequence of the undertakings of these two tasks between adults and children. With children, they often mourn first, and then adapt later. Whereas with adults, the process is often reversed, thus creating tremendous intergenerational conflicts several years after emigration, particularly when the children become adolescents.

As an example, recently one of the authors had the opportunity of taking her friend and her two sons, age 10 and 11 to a Chinese restaurant in San Francisco for dim sum. The three of them just emigrated from Hong Kong not too long ago. The two boys criticized the quality of the food incessantly during the meal, commenting that it was far inferior to that in Hong Kong. Meanwhile, the mother was talking excitedly about her new job, her new house, and plans for her future. The sons, on the other hand, were talking excitedly about the anticipated trip back to Hong Kong in the coming summer. From our experiences, it is more than likely in five years time, the same family will be conducting an entirely different conversation during lunch. The boys will be talking about the latest pop music, and their anticipation of the freedom associated with the obtaining of a driver's license, while the mother will be longing for a trip to return to Hong Kong. What happened during the five years period?

Dr. Sluzki (1979) in his article "Migration and Family Conflict" outlined the five stages of migration: (1) preparatory stage; (2) act of migration; (3) period of overcompensation; (4) period of decompensation; and (5) transgenerational phenomena. He suggested that each step has distinctive characteristics, triggers different types of family coping mechanisms and unchain different types of conflicts and symptoms.

Let us examine the experience of the children leaving Hong

Kong with their families to move to live in another country according to the above paradigm, and we will try to use it to explain the reversed process of adaptation demonstrated by the mother and sons trio.

1. Preparatory Stage

During the initial preparatory stage to emigrate, few parents would consult with their children to obtain their opinion. OFten, the decision is kept as a secret among the parents, and then announced to the children a couple of months before the actual relocation takes place. Given the enormous task of packing, bidding goodbye to relatives, friends and colleagues, the children's fear and sense of uncertainty about the future are often neglected. Thus, even though almost all families who emigrate cited attainment of a better future for the children as a primary reason for relocating, the children themselves often do not share the same conviction.

2. The Act of Migration

Often the family has to stay with relatives upon arrival to the destination of emigration. This is usually another phase causing immense psychological stress for the children involved. they are often caught in the cross-fire among the grown-ups who are having a difficult time sorting out mutual expectations and obligations, and dealing with disappointments. It is therefore easy to see why the children long for their own home, their own peer groups and familiar neighborhoods.

3. Period of Overcompensation

During this period, a family has to adapt quickly to the new culture in order to begin the first step of survival. Tasks such as looking for jobs, enrolling the children for school, looking for a permanent place to stay, all must be accomplished within a relatively short period of time. Heightened task-oriented efficiency is noted in most instances.......among the adult members of the family. However, with children, after the initial excitement over the new environment, they quickly slip into the next phase of adaptation, that is, the period of decompensation or crisis.

4. Period of Decompensation

Different family members often enter this period at different times. As noted in the above mother and sons trio, children are often the first to express their disillusionment, and dissatisfaction. For some children, this is a phase of adaptation that will soon come to pass. For others, sometimes they are caught in this stage of decompensation for a long time. Having lost their old support systems, and not having established a new one, plus having parents who are themselves experiencing disillusionment with they relocation, many children begin exhibit symptomatic behavior during this stage.

5. Transgenerational Impact

Since different family members has different rate of adaptation, and the paths of adaptation are often different, much intergenerational conflicts can be experienced years after the initial act of migration.

Having looked at the pattern of psychological adaptation to emigration among children, we would like to examine more in depth the specific problems exhibited by children who emigrated from Hong Kong. These problems often become evident during the last two phases of adaptation.

At the initial level, these children tend to show feelings of anxiety that are beyond the normal expected intensity. For instance, they may easily feel threatened or extremely uncomfortable when they are in the company of peers who do not speak Chinese. Consequently, they may isolate themselves from their peers in school; or cling closely to their own group without ever venturing out their limited social circle. Sometimes, they may even refuse to attend school, so that they can limit their exposure to the anxiety arousing situation. For the younger children, they cannot separate from their family members. Symptoms such as insomnia, loss of appetite, tearfulness and frequent nightmares are often observed.

At a more noticeable level, the children may exhibit behavior such as fighting , stealing in school and at home. They may become truant and hang out with their preferred peer group (usually other children sharing similar background with them). The children are observed to challenge authority frequently. They talk back to their parents and are oppositional and defiant toward teachers. Very often, they will belittle the parents for their lack of understanding of the American way of life. If the family is unaware of their children's problem or does not have the time to deal with it, these children may run away from home and become delinquent.

Sometimes instead of acting their frustrations outward, some children may keep it inward. They will turn lethargic and completely withdrawn from any social interaction, not even relating with their family or friends. At the same time, these children school performances could also suffer drastically. As a result, they develop low self-esteem, thinking that they may have failed to meet their parents' expectation. It is not unusual for some of them to harbor suicidal thoughts because of their intense feelings of helplessness.

The most severe forms of maladjustment found in the children are indicated by psychotic features. These could take place in the forms of thought disturbance; perceptual and sensory delusions as a means to escape from reality; persecutory ideas to reflect their mistrust for the people and the environment. This could best be illustrated by the case of Linda, a teenager treated by one of the authors.

Linda is a 15 year-old girl from Hong Kong. Linda's wealthy parents decided to send her to the United States for schooling by herself, citing the political instability in Hong Kong as the reason. Being brought up in a family that everything was always provided for without her ever needing to raise her fingers, coming to the United States was a cruel cultural shock for Linda. Within months, Linda's mental status deteriorated from a normal functioning teenager to someone who could hardly differentiate between reality and delusion. She was constantly suspicious of strangers following her; thinking someone was monitoring her conversations with others with a listening device; hearing her parents talking to her to remind her to do well in school so as not to disappoint them. It had worsened to point that she could no longer capable of taking care of herself. She was found wandering on the street, looking disoriented and disheveled. As a result, Linda had to be hospitalized for psychiatric care.

Very often, the emigration process does not only affect the children; it impacts on the parental-child relationship as well. Increase in the frequency of child abuse, substance abuse by both parents and children are commonly found. In the so-called "Astronaut" arrangement in which one or both parents are unavailable, and the children are placed under custodial care of relatives or friends, the impact could be particularly calamitous. Due to to lack of proper parental models and proper guidance, the children often become misguided. On a lesser degree, the children will fail to develop strong bonding with the parents. On a more severe level, they may become delinquent due to the lack of parental supervision.

In conclusion, most children who emigrate with or without their families would eventually attain some psychological equilibrium with regard to the two tasks facing them; namely the mourning of the loss of the familiar culture, and the establishment of a new identity in the new culture.

Sometimes, a few children are less successful in attaining such equilibrium, and may develop maladaptive patterns. It is at these times that interventions by mental health professionals should be considered.

Prevention, through the paying of closer attention to each child's psychological reaction to each stage of emigration; spending time listening and talking with them; including them in the planning and decision making processes as much as possible; be supportive and honest about your own feelings, are extremely useful measures to enhance the healthy adjustments by the children to the emigration process.

PSYCHOTHERAPEUTIC GROUP WORK FOR THE AGED WITH A FOCUS ON BODY AND EMOTION

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Japan Today

While technological progress in Japan since the Second World War has induced rapid economic growth and turned the country into a major world economic power, the domestic situation in Japan has suffered many drastic changes as a result which have been the cause of a large number of social problems and an ever-widening gap between city and rural life in both economic and cultural terms.

One of the most serious of these problems concerns the steadily worsening situation regarding welfare for the elderly in Japan. Rapid changes in the population structure, caused, firstly, by a decrease in the birth rate, and, secondly, by a decrease in the death rate, have led to a high increase in the number of the elderly. By the year 2020, it is predicted that there will be as many as 31,880,000 elderly people in Japan (23.6% of the population).

Nursing homes in Japan

In Japan, according to the Law for the Aged, there are three types of government-recognised and controlled residential homes for the elderly: the first type is known as a 'special nursing home for the aged', the second as a 'residential institution' and the third as a 'home for a moderate fee'. None of these homes provide specific medical care; they are merely institutions for housing the elderly. In other words, they concentrate on basic needs such as food, clothing and shelter. The first type, the 'special nursing home', which features in this study, provides nursing care for persons over 65 years of age who are physically/mentally handicapped and who have no-one else to care for them, regardless of their financial situation. This type of nursing home is defined by law, not as a 'clinical institution', but as an 'institution for the elderly in need of care'.

At present, the average life span of the Japanese is 80 years. How to make the best use of our declining years has become an important preoccupation in Japan. This has led to a new view of the nursing home. Instead of being seen as a place merely to accommodate the elderly until they die, it is now regarded as a place in which they should live full lives. Thus, the importance of thinking of new ways to encourage the elderly to spend their leisure time more significantly has been recognized.

However, though recreation or group activities have previously been organised for the elderly in nursing homes in Japan in such subjects as reading, writing, arithmetic and other cultural skills, until recently, all activities have tended to have a practical slant to them and have not been designed to solve any psychological problems suffered by the residents.

Problems regarding the elderly's intellectual activities in special nursing homes:

i) Environment

The majority of special nursing homes in Japan tend to be built in the suburbs and, therefore, are somewhat isolated. Residents find themselves cut off from social activities and living rather monotonous and stereotyped lives. In addition, some elderly people regard the nursing home as the place in which they have come to prepare for death, with the result that they show less motivation to participate in social activities. Furthermore, in Japan there is no legal requirement to provide facilities for intellectual activities in nursing homes. This means that no extra space is provided and, should any such activities be actually carried out, the only free area available for use is that of the dining room.

ii) Staff shortages

In nursing homes in Japan today, the staff are so preoccupied with daily tasks such as assisting the residents with bathing, excretion and at mealtimes that they rarely have any spare time for club or group activities. The member of staff who is responsible for the direct care of the residents is known as a matron and any group activities that are organised usually fall to her to carry out as part of her duties. However, until recently, she was not required to have any specialist training or qualifications for leading these activities which meant that very often there was no proper procedure to them; post-assessment was rarely carried out and the only real objective in mind was to provide immediate enjoyment. In fact, such activities tended to be somewhat monotonous and stereotyped, and, with an emphasis on quantity of events rather than quality, they rarely catered for individual needs.

Group activities and problems at Seifu-so Nursing Home

Seifu-so Nursing Home, a special nursing home, regularly organises club activities for residents once or twice a month in such subjects as painting, composing haiku poems, handicrafts and abacus calculation skills. When these activities first started, they were extremely popular among the residents; each activity attracted between 10 and 20 participants. However, in recent years, the number of attendants has decreased; the highest number of participants in any activity is never more than ten, and in the haiku poems club there are now only two attendants.

Proportionally, there has been an increase in the number of residents remaining inactive in their own rooms. As a result, quarrelling among roommates has been a more common occurence. Our own suppositions as to the reasons for this increasing tendency are as follows:

Firstly, those club activities which are handled by professional specialists may be too professional or technical, causing the attendants to feel overawed by the activity. In such cases the main objective of the activity seems to have been more focussed on the quality of the attendants' work than on their actual participation in the activity. With this focus in mind, individual handicaps or differences of ability may have been ignored and thus, many of the attendants who were less successful in the activity gradually became discouraged from participating and also more socially withdrawn.

Secondly, it may be that the residents' aging causes their craving for life and motivation to participate in social activities with others to decrease.

In Saifu-so Nursing Home, some residents have been there for at least ten years. Their lives are so routined that they have almost no opportunities to decide to do something of their own accord. Furthermore, the group activities described above do not cater for those who lack motivation. It was also felt that, although everyone lives together, many people in this system suffer from a certain sense of isolation. Encouraging the residents to lead a more meaningful life together has been an important priority in this institution, and much effort has been spent in recent years attempting to solve these problems.

The introduction of psychotherapeutic group work (PGW)

Thus, as an experiment, Seifu-so Nursing Home instigated psychotherapeutic group work (PGW) in an attempt to foster better human relations among the residents and to increase their sense of awareness of themselves and the world around them. The group work was organised to provide the participants with an opportunity not so much for recreation as for an outlet in which they would be encouraged to express themselves individually and without inhibition, with the aim of developing a more positive and active attitude towards life.

Characteristics of the PGW group

i) Approach

The methods employed in the PGW study focussed on a bodily approach in accordance with recent psychotherapeutic thought, which regards the body as a useful medium through which to stimulate personal growth. Just as children do, the elderly need physical contact to maintain good mental health (Corey & Corey, 1987). All of the residents in Seifu-so Nursing Home are physically handicapped and almost all of them have a tendency to ignore their own body as if it were somehow entirely separate from their sense of self. This attitude seems to cause them to be socially and/or psychologically inactive to some degree or other.

Thus, this study hoped to improve the mental health of the residents by encouraging them to rediscover their own bodies. The activities employed in the PGW focussed on bodily feelings and on spontaneous communication; tasks were designed to teach the attendants skills to make themselves aware of their own body and feelings in an individual sense. The effectiveness of this approach was then analysed.

ii)Participants

Participants in the study were fixed and all were residents of Seifu-so Nursing Home. Originally, there were 24 participants; however, early on, two females dropped out, one due to a severe mental illness, and the other for an unknown reason, leaving 19 females (79.2%). All the remaining group members were mobile and were able to hold a conversation; the level of the participants' education was assessed as approximately elementary grade. Ages ranged from 64 to 98, with an average age of 77.8 years.

The participants were randomly assigned to one of two groups: the psychotherapeutic group work (PGW) group, consisting of 8 females and 2 males, or the control group, consisting of 9 females and 3 males. The PGW activity was defined as an 'Enjoy Yourself Meeting' in which there would be an opportunity to do something fun. Each attendant was individually invited to join the group. No special activities were organised at any time during the study for the control group; the group was merely evaluated alongside the PGW group. (The control group is to receive PGW treatment at a later date.)

iii)Frequency

The group met bi-weekly for a 120-minute session during the course of a year, with a total of 27 sessions.

iv)Group facilitators

The main group facilitator was a professional psychotherapist and the co-faciliator was a daily life guidance officer in the nursing home. Both these facilitators were also fixed.

Data collection

The assessment of the PGW study was carried out in two ways:

Assessment A: using Corey & Corey (1987) criteria.
In Corey & Corey, 1987, the group process is divided into six stages, as follows: i) Pre-group Stage ii) Initial Stage iii) Transition Stage iv) Working Stage v) Final Stage vi) Post-group Stage.

Assessment B : using a variety of measurements.
The assessment and tests described below were administered just before the first group session and then again two months after the final group session. In this case, five different kinds of instruments were used to assess the differences between the PGW and control groups, as follows:

i) The Japanese edition of Cattell Anxiety Scale (CAS), derived from IPAT Anxiety Scale (Cattell & Scheier, 1963), was used to measure anxiety levels. The CAS is composed of five sub-scales which are each further sub-divided into eight different items. The five sub-scales are categorised as: a)Defective integration b)Ego weakness c)Suspiciousness d)Proneness to guilt e)Frustration tension.

ii) Thouhou University's Self-rating Questionnaire for Depression (SRQ-D) is a scale for screening depression and is composed of 20 items.

iii) Hasegawa's Brief Intellectual Function Assessment Scale (HS) is designed for rating dementia and is based on the theory that dementia is essentially caused by intellectual impairment. HS has a co-relation with Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale and Kohs Block Design Test (Hasegawa et al., 1974).

iv) Mini Mental State Examination (MMS) is composed of 11 items and designed to measure cognitive mental function (Folstein et al., 1975).

v) GBS, a rating scale for dementia developped by Gottfries, Brane and Steen (1982), was administered in order to measure participants' social attitudes. GBS has four sub-scales, but in this study only three sub-scales were administered in the following areas: motor performance (sub-scale A), emotional aspects (sub-scale C) and other features common to demented people (sub-scale D).

CAS and SRQ-D were self-rating scales; MMS and HS were evaluated by a clinical psychologist; GBS was evaluated by two matrons and one daily guidance officer. The mean score of the latter three evaluations was taken as the final GBS score of each individual in the study.

RESULT: *Assessment A*

According to Corey & Corey, the provision of an orientation meeting before the initiation of group work activities is advised. However, in our study, the orientation was carried out in the first session of PGW and, thus, this first session could be considered the Pre-group Stage in Corey & Corey terms.

Furthermore, although, theoretically, there were supposed to be only four stages between the pre-group and post-group stages, the PGW group process in our study was divided into five stages due to the fact that the third stage in our group process could not be defined as either a 'transition' stage or a 'working' stage. Therefore we called the third stage the 'Pre-Working' Stage. The characteristics of this third stage are described in our DISCUSSION. As far as the Post-group Stage is concerned, one follow-up session was provided for the PGW group three months after the termination of the PGW sessions.

STAGE 1 : Session 1 *(Pre-group Stage)*; Sessions 2-6 *(Initial Stage)*

Session 1

The majority of the attendants were noted as very tense. Although the group was made to sit in a circle so that everyone could see each other, no-one spoke or showed any facial expressions. However, whenever a facilitator addressed the attendants, they displayed socially acceptable behaviour, such as smiling politely.

After the staff had introduced themselves and explained some basic details about PGW, the first activity was implemented. The objective was to get the attendants to relax their shoulder muscles. However, immediate difficulties were encountered with this first bodily approach relaxation activity. Some attendants showed a negative attitude; for example, Ms Z., who was said to be the residents' leader, sat with her arms folded and constantly left the room during the session to smoke or talk with other residents not involved in the PGW. It was realised that a less direct method would have to be employed to achieve the goal of the first session.

Sessions 2-4

Thus, during sessions 2-4 it was decided to aim first at developing the attendants' sensory awareness in an attempt to decrease their anxiety. The following exercises were introduced: feeling a flower in a black box using fingertips; going outside and smelling the air, feeling flowers and grass; listening to different kinds of sounds and generally making them aware of the things that surrounded them.

The activities outside and with the black box were thoroughly enjoyed by the attendants, who used their imaginations and expressed themselves very freely about all they became aware of, saying things like 'cherry tree', 'branches', 'leaves', 'creatures', etc. At this stage they did not express themselves emotionally, but merely stated what they perceived. We encouraged them to verbalise anything at all that they became aware of, and tried to create an atmosphere that would make such free expression acceptable within the group. We also reasssured them that confidences would not be broken.

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Session 5: *Touching the next person's shoulder*
During this activity, the facilitator asked the attendants how they felt while they were being touched. However, at first the answers were too short: 'I feel good'/'Ifeel bad'. In order to get them to answer more freely, the facilitator asked the attendants to choose a colour that would express their feeling from a selection of 100 pieces of coloured paper. The participants found it easier to express themselves individually in this activity. It was at this point that the original goal aimed at in the first session was accomplished.

STAGE 2 : Sessions 7-13 *(Transition Stage)*

The activities during the second stage aimed at forming a secure and non-threatening environment within the group. The attendants were encouraged to verbalise their physical and emotional experiences, using the following body work and images:

Session 7
The facilitator started this session with the request: 'Pick one of the memories that impressed you most in your life and tell us about it', but it was rejected. Next, the facilitator asked: 'What would you like to do now?' But, again, the attendants answered negatively, saying: 'Our handicapped bodies prevent us from doing what we want to do.' Two types of feelings seemed to be expressed here: the first, a kind of challenge or hostility towards the young facilitator; the second, emotions of anxiety over dying and anger for organic losses.

Session 8: *Making up a story, using imagination, from an incomplete picture*
The attendants were given a picture of a tree and a man and were then asked to add at least three things to it, if possible. This was done by most of the group, although one person added nothing at all. However, they each made up different and interesting stories and the activity provided everyone with many occasions to smile and laugh with each other.

At this point, a change in attitude was noted in Ms T. and she began to show signs of looking forward to the next session at least half a day in advance. The PGW activity was, in fact, the first activity in which she had agreed to take part in the Nursing Home.

Session 10: *Fantasy trip*
The participants were asked to close their eyes and imagine going on an imaginary bus trip together and then, descending from the bus, to walk around. In order to enhance their imaginations, the facilitator asked questions like: 'What kind of tree impresses you the most?'; 'How is the landscape around here?', etc. During this trip some of the attendants expressed what they imagined quite spontaneously, and some even with tears.

Session 11: *Miming and singing*
In this session, the attendants were asked to close their eyes and imagine a chestnut tree featured in a song, and then to try to mime the tree as they imagined it, expressing its height, thickness and age. Mr L., who often used to refer to his disabled hand as: 'My poor hand!', was eager to prize open his closed and paralyzed hand with his other good hand and use it to express his imagined tree. The group then sang the song using specific physical actions, and did not try to hide their disabilities as on previous occasions.

Session 13: *Group picture, entitled 'Autumn'*
The attendants painted a picture together about autumn after the facilitator brought in several kinds of insects symbolic of autumn to stimulate their imaginations. When some of the insects tried to jump away and escape, a few of the attendants caught them extremely rapidly with their disabled hands. This spontaneous 'here and now' action surprised them and caused open feedback from the other attendants, such as: 'You're great!' and 'How did you catch it so rapidly?'; it seemed to give the attendants a different perception of themselves or their body-image. In sessions 11 to 13, the use of the attendants' paralyzed limbs caused a great deal of interaction between the members of the group.

It was at this point that resistance to group activites and challenges began to be expressed differently by the group. In the first stage, such feelings had been shown by silence or leaving the room in the middle of a session, but in the second and early in the third stage of the study, some attendants began to criticise or challenge the facilitator directly saying things like: 'This programme is too childish!' or 'This activity is not necessary for us!', or by being late or absent without reason. Whenever this happened, the facilitator tried to serve as a model for the attendants by dealing adequately with any challenges, and by constantly supporting and encouraging them.

STAGE 3 : Sessions 14-20 *(Pre-Working Stage)*

The third stage emphasized free expression of physical and emotional experiences in the 'here and now', using physical exercises.

Session 14
After an activity using body work, Mr Z., who had earlier been one of the attendants to challenge the facilitator, spontaneously shared with the group a curious dream he had had the previous night. It was the first time that any of the attendants had expressed themselves in such a way without any prompting from the facilitator.

Sessions 15 & 16: *Physical exercises with balls, marbles and cards*
The attendants had great fun with these exercises, and it provided many opportunities for them to call to each other and give spontaneous feedback. A

radical change of attitude was noted in Ms Z.; during the first stage, she had merely stared at the facilitator; during the second stage, she had sometimes absented herself; however, from session 10 onwards, she began to attend fully and smile a lot. In the third stage, she began to use an ashtray in the session room for the first time, instead of going to smoke outside, and to help those attendants in wheelchairs to move around.

Session 19: *Body work in pairs*
The attendants started to show far more sensitivity and openness towards each other, and to verbalize their thoughts and feelings without hesitation; for example, demanding to be touched in a more comfortable way during excercises ('Squeeze my hand gently between your two palms,' etc). Real feelings became synonymous with verbal and facial expressions, and the attendants showed a desire to stay longer in each session.

After session 19, it was necessary for the facilitator to give individual therapy to Ms I. at a deeper level of self-exploration, in order to help her accept her sorrow and anxiety over organic losses and dying.

At this point, both positive and negative feelings experienced in the 'here and now' were expressed with increasing frequency. Furthermore, outside the session room, there were signs that the PGW group was developing a closer relationship with other residents (for example, the co-facilitator reported that Ms N. and Ms J. had begun giving frequent daily greetings to other residents and offering to help those with physical disabilities). Higher motivation for physical rehabilitation training was also noted.

STAGE 4 : Sessions 21-25 *(Working Stage)*

Increasingly, many of the attendants began showing signs of looking forward to the PGW session at least half an hour early. The group began to share the role of the facilitator and to interest each other freely and directly, sometimes without any prompting from the facilitator. Any tools or techniques used by the facilitator became merely an excuse for their discussions to start.

Session 21
The question: 'How do you want to use this session?' received a very different form of reply from the similar question in session 7: 'We have no idea, but give us some information on how we can find out.' During the first stage, the attendants had answered such a question, saying: 'Nothing' or 'Nothing special'; in the second stage, they were a little more positive: 'You choose something for us.' After session 23, this type of question began to be asked by the attendants themselves in their discussions.

Session 22: *Current affairs magazines and essays with pictures*
Free discussion of a particular issue would expand to other issues. The topics

dealt with in the group began to spread outside to the attendants' roommates. It was noted by the co-facilitator in the nursing home that the PGW attendants and other residents began to demand more information on current issues.

Sessions 23-25
The co-facilitator presented a particular topic to stimulate discussion.

At this point, communication within the group was quite open and feedback was given freely and frequently. Furthermore, each attendant began to refer to him or herself in the first person ('I statement' rather than 'We statement'), as they had previously done. Their personal relationships with each other were close and they addressed the facilitator in a familiar fashion with jokes and demands. The facilitator gradually began to decrease her role as activity leader and to participate less in activities.

Increased awareness and interest in their environment were noted, as in the example of Ms T., who was seen gazing at a potted plant which had been placed in the lobby for some time. As the co-facilitator was passing, she said to him, 'It's really beautiful isn't it? I'd never noticed it before.' Ms T. used to go through this lobby at least three times a day to go to the dining room.

Another encouraging sign regarding PGW development concerned the problem of group attendance. One of the most popular activities at Seifu-so is the opportunity given to the residents to shop from a local market that visits the Nursing Home three times a month. As the PGW session was scheduled at the same time as this activity, it was initially very difficult to turn the interest of the participants from shopping to the group work.

In the first stage, the attendants sometimes refused to come to the PGW and went shopping instead, so a lot of effort had to be made by the co-facilitator to persuade them to attend. In the second stage, a few would come to the session but then leave to go out shopping, which prompted others to return to their bedrooms; the session had to be ended at such times. In the third stage, some attendants who left in the middle of a session to go shopping would return to the session room afterwards. In the fourth stage, however, the attendants tended not to leave the session to go shopping. They either finished it on the occasion which did not coincide with the PGW session or, if someone did decide to go shopping, a short interval was proposed, in which other attendants could rest until they returned.

STAGE 5 : Sessions 26-27 *(Final Stage)*

Session 26: *Preparing for the closure of the group*
With only two sessions left before the end of the PGW study, the significance of the PGW experience was discussed. Ms I. said to the other attendants, 'We have to continue to try and create many opportunities to talk with each other and make sure that we do not withdraw from each other.' She also said to the group

facilitator, 'We have only just started to learn something - and now we have to stop!'

Session 27: *Closure*
Some sadness and anxiety over the breaking up of the group was expressed. It was asked whether there was any intention of doing this kind of group work again in the future.

Feelings about the termination of the PGW sessions and of the group itself were then dealt with by the facilitator.

Follow-up individual interviews were carried out by the co-facilitator to assess the impact of PGW on the attendants.

RESULT: *Assessment B*

In order to verify the reliability of the GBS scores, which were evaluated by three observers, the inter-rater partial correlation at pre-test was examined. As a result, the correlation coefficients among them were not significant (sub-scale A : $r = 0.40$ $p < 0.20$; sub-scale C : $r = -0.01$; sub-scale D : $r = 0.46$ $p < 0.10$). Therefore, the GBS score was excluded from the assessment.

Table 1 indicates the mean and standard deviations of pre and post-test scores on HS, MMS, SRQ-D and CAS scales with regard to both the PGW and control groups. In order to examine the differences between the two groups during the same testing period, t test was performed. Any individual changes in the pre and post-test results were examined by sign test; the differences between the two groups in this aspect were then examined by chi-square test.

Not all the participants were available for post-test analysis, therefore, the number of participants from whom we obtained statistical data was seven in the PGW group and ten in the control group.

The mean HS score of the two groups shows a slight deterioration of intellectual functioning. In the HS score, the differences between the groups and within the groups were not significant.

The mean MMS score indicates slight impairement of cognitive mental function. Again, there were no significant inter/intra group differences.

Regarding the SRQ-D score on the PGW group, an improvement in the depressive trait was felt and, statistically-speaking, there were significant changes between pre and post scores ($p < .063$). However, the chi-square test did not reveal any significant differences between the PGW and control groups ($x^2 = 1.40$ $p < 0.30$).

Lastly, in the CAS score, significant differences were not found between the two groups.

Table 1

Mean (M) and Standard (SD) deviations in Pre and Post-tests, and intra-individual changes

Group			<HS>			<MMS>			<SRQ D>			<CAS>		
Condition	n	Age	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change
PGW	7				(+/-)			(+/-)			(+/-)			(+/-)
M		76.6	24.0	24.2	4/2	23.5	21.8	1/4	9.5	7.62	6/1	35.4	33.5	2/4
SD		8.68	6.40	5.68		3.20	4.29		3.74	6.24		15.7	14.1	
Control	10													
M		76.2	24.9	24.6	5/2	23.2	22.4	2/3	11.2	11.1	4/3	37.4	35.2	6/4
SD		8.10	4.49	6.66		4.87	4.89		5.75	4.64		15.0	17.3	

DISCUSSION

The effect of Psychotherapeutic Group Work

The objective of this project was to try to find a way to improve the lives of the elderly in special nursing homes in Japan, particulary those people who appeared socially inactive, apathetic and with low self-esteem. On assessment of PGW methods, which focus on increasing the attendants' awareness of their own bodies, it is felt that, although, statistically speaking it is hard to prove when comparing the PGW group with the control group, the PGW approach was indeed benefitial to improving the depressive trait in the elderly who took part in this study.

The PGW approach aimed at reuniting the attendants with their senses and feelings through body work, and at improving their self-esteem and interpersonal relationships. The approach was psychotherapeutic but not insight-oriented; though it used tasks, these tasks were not used for 'problem-solving'. In other words, the attendants were encouraged more to feel the 'here and now' emotion rather than to see intellectually into their minds. Thus, the facilitator tended to concentrate on methods which stimulate self awareness through direct emotional experience rather than through intellectualization of their emotions. Therefore, the effect of PGW on the attendants was to vitalize their emotional capacities.

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Development of PGW

i) *Stage classification*

The Corey & Corey theory was used to define the different stages in the PGW study. However, there was one stage in our study which did not correspond to any Corey & Corey classification; namely, the third stage, the characteristics of which were considered different from both those of the Transition and Working stages for the following reasons:

a) The third stage differenciated itself from the Transition Stage in that trust was firmly established between the group members and the facilitator at this point, with the result that they showed little fear in communicating directly with each other.

b) The third stage was also seen to differentiate itself from the Working Stage, due to the fact that spontaneous feedback and self-expression only occurred sporadically and greater participation and prompting was therefore required at this time from the facilitator in order to promote direct communication.

As described in the RESULT analysis, a new classification for this stage had to be found.

ii) *Cultural factors*

The cultural background and value systems of the attendants were considered to have a significant influence on the stage development of the PGW study. This is due to the fact that, generally speaking, despite the radical changes in Japanese contemporary thought and values since the 1960s, Japanese culture still stresses the traditional avoidance of verbalising individual feelings directly. Such action is regarded as immature and, thus, shameful in Japan. In other words, the ability to express feelings in a non-verbal way is a highly regarded quality. Therefore, whenever expressing themselves in public, the Japanese tend to use vague and ambiguous terms, expecting others to use their sensitivity to fathom their real meaning. However, in the case of the attendants in the PGW study, this tendency is even more pronounced since all of them were brought up with the value systems of the period before the 1960s and therefore have not been exposed to more direct methods of communication.

This traditional tendency in Japanese culture, so pronounced in the attendants, may have caused them to be less forthcoming in expressing themselves directly. Furthermore, their lack of experience in doing so causes them to find such methods of communication difficult. Therefore, the preparatory stage for the Working Stage was felt to be essential.

In conclusion, a good understanding of attendants' social and cultural backgrounds during such psychotherapeutic group work cannot be stressed enough if such activities are to be managed effectively and if all group participants are to adapt to this type of group work without trauma.

Helping Individuals Who Have Been Subjected to Destructive Mind Control Processes

presented by Steven Hassan M.Ed.

Steven Hassan M.Ed., is an international expert on cults and mind control and has helped to non-coercively exit-counsel hundreds of people involved in destructive cults during the past thirteen years. A former member of the Moon cult, Steven Hassan has lectured at major colleges and universities around the world and appeared on innumerable television and radio programs. He is author of the critically acclaimed book, ***Combatting Cult Mind Control*** (Park Street Press, 1988).

During the past several decades, in the United States and throughout the countries of the world, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of organizations and institutions that use what are known as mind control techniques on individuals. These organizations encompass a wide range of agendas- including religious, political, educational, psychotherapeutic and commercial. Many of these groups claim to have one agenda, for example, religious, yet they function politically and commercially as well.

Although the attempt to control people's minds is as old as human history, modern day mind control has been developed into a tremendously sophisticated process. Never before has so much been known about how the human mind and body work. A host of diverse disciplines have each contributed to the development of mind control technology including: physiology; psychology; linguistics; hypnosis; sociology. Unfortunately, this knowledge is being applied by individuals and institutions who seek power and money with their purpose to control and manipulate people.

Mind control, simply defined, is the control of: behavior; thoughts; emotions; as well as information. Mind control, as I will use it in this paper, refers to the destructive application of a systematic social influence process for the purpose of rendering an individual or a group of individuals *dependent, compliant and obedient* to the controlling agent of influence. Mind control techniques can include sleep deprivation, privacy deprivation, dietary manipulation, hypnosis, a host of behavior modification techniques, thought-stopping techniques, phobia indoctrination and control of information. Mind control denies people the tools they need to think critically and independently.

I am a former member and mid-level leader of one such destructive cult group, Sun Myung Moon's Unification organization, which aspires to "conquer and subjugate the world". Moon refers to himself as the new messiah- greater than any other spiritual leader in history, and has created what is estimated to be a billion dollar international business and political conglomerate. In 1976, following a near fatal automobile accident, I was deprogrammed by former members at my parent's request and made the decision to leave the group. Since that time, I have researched mind control and counseled hundreds of people trapped in mind control organizations and relationships. I have given hundreds of lectures and seminars and appeared innumerable times on television and radio programs educating the public about the dangers of mind control and the activities of destructive cults. I recently authored a book about my work, entitled ***Combatting Cult Mind Control*** (Park Street Press, 1988) which offers a detailed account of all aspects of this phenomenon.

Currently in the United States, it is estimated that there are over 3000 organizations which are considered to use destructive mind control over some 15 million Americans. Admittedly, these numbers are very conservative. Even though the United States appears to be stricken by massive numbers of these organizations, no country seems to be exempt from their influence.

On a global level, it is clear that there are entire countries which are under the control of a particular political leader or party. These countries have made mind control practices a cultural norm and even resort to torture, terror, and murder, not to mention widespread information control. When viewed from this perspective, the majority of human beings are living in mind control systems.

Unfortunately, most people are unaware of the process of mind control. Even though friends and relatives had tried to tell me dozens of times during my cult membership by that I was "brainwashed" or under mind control, back then I had no understanding what that process really was. At the time, I felt, that I had not been coersed or forced to believe anything. Indeed, I felt like I was a free agent. While a a member of the Moon cult, I was heavily indoctrinated to become "anti-Communist". Extreme elicitation and utilization of fear was an important tool to make members automatically comply with leader's commands. After all, we were told repeatedly, we were in a war against Satan and Communism was Satan's army.

It was only during my deprogramming that I came to understand that in fact I was no longer thinking for myself and my entire belief system had been changed subtly - one step at a time. During my counseling, I was shown a book entitled *Thought Reform and the Psychology of Totalism* (1961) by, then Yale psychiatrist, Robert Jay Lifton. This book was written about Mao's cultural revolution and described, based on interviews of people who underwent the "brainwashing" process, important aspects of the phenomenon. In chapter 22, Lifton offered eight criteria by which any environment may be evaluated as using destructive thought reform. These criteria include: milieu control; mystical manipulation; the demand for purity; the cult of confession; sacred science; loading the language; doctrine over person; and the dispensing of existence. In the appendix of my book, I have included an essay by Lifton in which he summarizes each of these criteria.

The importance of understanding what mind control is and how it can be utilized is essential to the process of safeguarding freedom. It is clear that those who know and understand this process have an unfair advantage of those who are ignorant. We know, as fact, that intelligence agencies around the world have been engaged in mind control research for decades. Yet, no government to my knowledge has ever made a statement to its citizens that such mind control technology exists and is being used. I believe it is imperative that this information become available to all, in the hope it will serve to neutralize those who seek to control and dominate others.

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With this as the introduction, I want to discuss further the criteria for evaluating a mind control enviroment, and give a working model for counseling people who have been indoctrinated to distrust their own thought processes and personal value system. Currently, this mental health problem is listed in the DSM III as Atypical Dissociative Disorder 300.15.

The orientation for evaluating a group is based primarily on process and not content. This means the focus is on the way an individual comes to adopt a new belief system and not necessarily the beliefs themselves. The American Constitution guarantees the absolute freedom of belief (in the area of religion), and I highly value that freedom. However, the Constitution does not guarantee an absolute freedom to practice, if that practice is dangerous to its participants (in the case of snake handling cults) or where its practice infringes on the rights of others (for example, the Moonies can believe in heavenly deception, but if it is used on an unsuspecting convert his/her rights may be interfered with). There is, in my experience, a systematic process that can be used to deceive and indoctrinate people into believing and doing things which completely violate their personal belief system.

Any group which uses deception systematically during recruitment (deleting or distorting information) so that the potential convert is not able to make an informed decision, is practicing an important element of mind control. Legitimate organizations offer, up front, what they believe and what they expect from people when they join. Mind control groups offer only bits and pieces of information as they string the individual along, telling the potential recruit just as much as they think he/she is "ready to swallow".

Second, mind control groups typically have an authoritarian pyramid structure with some individual or group of individuals at the top who have complete power over the operation of the group and its members. Structurally there is no system of checks and balances.

Third, a group is considered to be destructive if it uses mind control. **Behavior control** seeks to occupy the person's time and monitor the person's activities. Autonomy is undermined and members are often made to ask permission of leaders for all decisions. Spying on one another is commonplace. Fear of punishment forces compliance. **Thought control** enforces a group viewpoint on all actions, by eliminating any other viewpoint. There is only one "correct" way to think and that way does not tolerate any "negative thoughts" about either the leader, the doctrine or the organizational policy. A behavior modification technique known as thought-stopping can be inculcated into individuals, so that they immediately chant, pray, meditate, speak in tongues, or simply think the "right way" whenever a doubt or question arises about their commitment to the group. **Emotional control** basicly refers to suppressing all emotions that run contrary to the group. It also includes an extreme amount of manipulation through fear and guilt. One universal technique of mind control involves the indoctrination of ***phobias*** within member's minds. People are made to feel that being a member of the group is an elite privilege, and that if one ever leaves that commitment terrible things will happen. For example, members are told they will go insane, get possessed by evil spirits, be hit by a car, go to Hell, get a terminal disease, or even be murdered if they leave the group. Such a person is *not* able to generate the possibility in their mind that people leave the group for legitimate reasons (as opposed to weakness, sin, personal problems) and that it is possible to be happier and fulfilled outside of the group. Lastly, **Information control** is used to keep members totally dependent and compliant. In a mind control group, information is controlled from the moment a person is initially contacted by recruiters throughout membership. Critical, negative information is kept compartmentalized, so that members do not know, nor have the ability to reality- test their situations. "Truth" varies from level to level within the authoritarian pyramid, and members are indoctrinated to avoid contact with any books, literature or individuals who have alternate views and opinions. Former members who are "negative" are especially viewed as a threat.

* * * * *

Former members who find their way out of the organization fall into three basic categories: Walk-outs; Kick-outs; Counseled-out (deprogramming/ exit-counseling).

Walk-outs and kick-outs are people who experience the greatest problems and need the most assistance from mental health professionals, clergy, and their family and friends. Walk-outs and kick-outs include people who have experienced a wide range of exposure to the cult - from just a few hours of indoctrination all the way up to dozens of years. These people are physically out of the group, but are still carrying within them a good deal of psychological and emotional baggage. They are prone to slipping back into the group; joining another mind control group; having nervous breakdowns or psychotic breaks; or even committing suicide. Other symptoms include: depression; fear; guilt; "floating" (moving in and out of dissociated states of consciousness involuntarily); fear of intimacy; fear of commitment; sexual disorders; social stigma; and threats and harassment. Individuals who have been deprogrammed (forcibly) or exit-counseled (non-coercively) have recovered much more quickly and are more able to resume happy, healthy, productive lives than those with no counseling.

Psychotherapists must inquire during their initial intake interview with clients whether or not the person has ever been in a "strong, time demanding and energy demanding group". It is necessary to probe using this type of language, because most walk-outs will not view their group involvement as having been a mind control cult. Ask them if they were ever part of an organization that demanded allegiance to the leader or the doctrine and when they left it if they experienced a great deal of turmoil and pain. Unfortunately, by not identifying this problem, wide scale misdiagnosis has occurred- resulting in inappropriate, ineffective or detrimental treatment.

Once it is determined that a person was involved with such a group, great care must be given to assessing their condition. For many, their survival mechanism since leaving the group has been suppression and denial. By encouraging the individual to remember their group involvement, the programming will resurface. It is imperative to give strong, positive, encouraging suggestions to the person that there are "many others who have left the group who have gone on to lead happy and fulfilled lives". Also, it is vital that they take the time to learn and study about mind control as well as contact other former members for support.

Cult mind control creates within people a new group sponsored identity and it is this new identity that supercedes the old personality. I refer to this phenomena in my book as John-John and John-cult member. So, for example, Steve Hassan, son of Milton and Estelle Hassan who loves to write poetry and play basketball, was superceded when in the Moonies by Steve Hassan, son of Sun Myung Moon and Hak Cha Han, a potential saint and a spiritual leader of mankind.

In my fifteen years of experience, however, cult mind control, never suceeds in totally erasing the person's previous identity. During my two and a half years as a Moonie, even though the new "me" successfully suppressed my old self, I realized after coming out that I still remembered many disillusioning experiences, which, if I wasn't under mind control, would have propelled me out of the group. Internally, my two identities were almost constantly at war. The real me wanted to be free, wanted to be happy, wanted to know the truth, and wanted to do what was morally right. The cult me wanted to follow the messiah, recruit people, make money for the group and help to take over the world. Counseling provided me the opportunity to sleep, eat, have information, think, reflect and reality test. Even on the fourth day of the intervention, however, I remember saying "I don't care if Moon is like Hitler, I've chosen to follow him and I'll follow him to the end". Fortunately, on the fifth day, my old self was able to break out and was able to begin thinking outside of the grid of the Moon organization.

Clearly, what is critical to help a person out of a mind control organization is a thorough understanding of mind control and a knowledge of not only that particular group but other mind control groups as well. You see, members are taught to do thought-stopping whenever they encounter critical information about their group, but they *aren't* programmed to do thought-stopping when they learn such information about *other* groups. So, if you are counseling a member of the Church of Scientology, they will agree with you that the Jehovah's Witnesses are a cult and will usually listen to you describe mind control as it is used in that organization. This indirect method of communicating information is a vital aspect of getting past the cult's indoctrination.

Perhaps most importantly, therapists must train themselves to deal with phobias. Remember, cult members have been indoctrinated with a phobia of ever leaving the group. Explain the structure of phobias (elevators, flying, public speaking) and how they are an irrational fear which interferes with a person's happiness and free choice. Encourage the person to visualize themselves doing what they *really* want to do, what they would be doing if they had never met the group. Do this over and over, encouraging them to step inside of their visualization and experience it fully. This helps to systematically desensitize them from the fear and helps them to build a bridge into another potential future. Ultimately, expose them to former members who are happy. This shows the individual that they too can leave the group and nothing bad will happen to them. Indeed, what they had been programmed to believe would happen if they left was not true.

It is important to help the client to "unpack" their cult experience and review it in its entirety from an objective "third person viewpoint". Writing everything down in a step by step chronological sequence can be very helpful. The person should be encouraged to remember specific people, places, events and activities, as well as positive and negative experiences. Eventually, he/she needs to sort through the specific beliefs of the group and pull out the things they wish to continue to believe. They also need to take all of the positive experiences they had while a member and integrate them into a more healthy balanced self. By teaching the person about mind control and how to avoid mind control situations, you can empower the person to overcome their fear of trusting and making commitments to others. It is important to remind the person that back then, they didn't have information about cults and mind control, and they acted based on their knowledge, resources and experiences *at that time.* Now they are older, more knowledgable and more experienced and they can be confidant that they would never allow such a thing to happen again.

It has been my experience that people who get sucked into these mind control groups are basically intelligent, idealistic, healthy, educated people who were ignorant of mind control groups and were experiencing a time of increased stress or transition (change of jobs, location, relationship, emotional loss) which made them situationally vulnerable. Many cult victims get recruited by friends, family members, or attractive members of the opposite sex. People are a country's greatest natural resource, and I believe that many of the brightest and most able people are being taken away from themselves, their families, and from the possibility of contributing to make the world a safer, saner and better place to live for all. Obviously, limitations of time and space prohibits a more detailed exposition of this massive social problem. However, I encourage all of you to learn more about this phenomenon.

Combatting Cult Mind Control can be ordered from your local bookstore or by calling in the United States (1-800-638-3030).

COMMITMENT TO DIVERSITY: AN INSTITUTIONAL APPROACH

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INTRODUCTION

Cultural diversity in the United States has increased dramatically in the recent past and all indications are that this trend will be accelerating in the coming years. This increased diversity has caused institutions to become mobilized to accommodate the inevitability and desirability of increased cultural diversity. In addition, institutions, policy makers, and service providers have searched for effective strategies to enhance education and to offer culturally-relevant services.

This paper will present an approach for establishing a commitment for a diversified population by examining the policy statements which need to be made by administrations and governing boards, program ideas to increase the recruitment and retention of diversified populations, and methods for successfully matriculating such students into the mainstream of the University. Policy statements and summaries of effective programs which have been implemented at the University of Northern Colorado will be shared. Effective strategies for enhancing both social development and education for diverse populations will also be included.

Participants at the international conference will be given specific program information on each of the programs. Readers of this paper who are interested in these details may contact the author of this paper.

NEED FOR DIVERSIFICATION

Mann (1989) conducted an extensive review of the literature regarding minority students' recruitment and retention. She cites a review by Mingle (1987) on the progress of minorities towards full participation in higher education over the past three decades. Highlights of this extensive report include:

1. By the year 2025, minorities are expected to make up nearly 40% of the traditional college-age population (18-24 year olds).

2. Although minority high school graduation rates have increased over the past two decades, they still lag behind the whites with Hispanics having the lowest rates -- 62% of 18-24 year-old Hispanics have high school diplomas compared to 83% of whites.

3. In the mid-1970s, college participation by 18-24 year-old Black and Hispanic youth peaked, but the rates have declined since then.

4. Total minority college enrollment increased 21% from 1976 to 1984, nearly 3 times the rate of Whites. However, much of this increase occurred before 1980. From 1980 to 1984, Black and American Indian enrollment declined.

5. Outpacing other groups, Asian-Americans nearly doubled their 1976 enrollment level by 1984. This fast-growing minority group now makes up more than 3% of total enrollments, compared with their 2% representation in the general population.

6. Except for Asian-Americans, the representation of minorities drops dramatically at the graduate and professional level. Blacks, who make up about 13% of the college-age youth, are 9.5% of all undergraduates and only 4.8% of graduate students.

7. Only about half of all high school seniors go on to college full-time immediately after graduation. Only half of those enrolling in four-year institutions achieve senior status four years later.

8. Students on the "fast track" are those who achieve senior status four years after high school graduation. One of every 3 Asians in the class of 1980 was on the "fast track", but only one in 7 Blacks and one in 10 Hispanics.

9. High school grades, family income, and parent's education were found to be the factors most closely associated with both initial enrollment and later persistence in college. Students who earn A's in high school are 25 times more likely to be on the "fast track" in college than students who earn C's. Students who come from high income families are four times more likely to persist than those from low income families.

10. Many minorities begin their education in two-year institutions, and success to the baccalaureate depends on transfer to a four-year institution. National and state studies, however, point to a deteriorating number of transfers from community colleges. This can be caused by high dropout rates, the lack of effective articulation agreements among colleges and roadblocks to accepting credit placed by four-year institutions and accrediting bodies.

11. In the 1960s and 1970s institutions responded to increased numbers of minorities by forming separate counseling and support programs. More recently the trend has been to integrate these services into broader efforts to improve the academic preparation of all students in need of help.

12. Anecdotal reports from campuses indicate that little progress has been made in race relations. Racial and ethnic groups often go their separate ways, creating a climate that may isolate students and reinforce stereotypes. Minority students may become disconnected from the life of the campus, a situation that lessens their retention and success.

13. Effective remedial and counseling programs are critical to retention. Yet many programs are poorly funded and receive low priority from institutional leaders.

14. The aspirations of students themselves can affect retention and success. States are considering a variety of "mentoring" efforts to raise the sights of minority students (Mingle, 1987, pp. 10-11).

Numerous studies have cited the need to address the declining enrollment and retention of minorities in institutions of higher learning. Another important factor is the underrepresentation of minorities in predominantly white institutions.

Oliver and Brown (1988) presented guidelines to successfully recruit academically qualified minority students. The report suggested six recruitment principles to make recruitment planning more effective:

1. The majority population of the University must be involved in recruitment activities.

2. Recruitment activities should not be disproportionately dependent on minority activities.

3. Recruitment programs should be networked within and between established minority social activities and programs.

4. Recruitment should be diverse and involved in a wide range of activities.

5. Recruitment efforts should include active service components. These services should relate to the students' personal needs.

6. Minority recruitment programs must be an integral part of the University's comprehensive recruitment and retention program.

The report (Oliver & Brown, 1988) concludes with a list of suggestions for beginning a minority recruitment plan based on the above considerations. The plan was outlined in four phases as follows: Phase 1: Getting Started and Gauging the Environment; Phase 2: Building a Recruitment Support Structure; Phase 3: Developing the Recruitment Program; and Phase 4: Implementation and Evaluation.

Richardson and de los Santos (1989) list 10 principles for good institutional practice in removing race/ethnicity as a factor in college completion. These principles grew out of recommendations of those attending a conference of the American Association of Higher Education. According to Richardson and de los Santos, colleges and universities having as a priority the reduction of race/ethnicity-related discrepancies in educational achievement will give attention to all of the following principles. To summarize, good practice--

-- benefits from publicly stated priorities.
-- commits discretionary dollars.
-- involves visible minority leadership.
-- is enhanced by good data.
-- emphasizes a systematic, coordinated approach to meeting student needs.
-- is uncompromising in the emphasis placed on quality.
-- depends upon collaboration with public schools, other colleges, and community agencies.
-- provides a supportive learning environment.
-- values diversity among the faculty and rewards good teaching.
-- aims at "comfortability" in the social environment.

SUCCESSFUL STRATEGIES

Many recent books have focused on minority recruitment and retention strategies, and several offer suggestions for institutions of higher education for increasing awareness of diversity and making an institutional commitment.

An important feature of these publications is that they are sponsored by important educational organizations such as the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) (McHugh, Dalton, Henley, & Buckner, 1988; Terrell & Wright, 1988), American Council on Education (ACE) (Green, 1988), Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE) (Odell & Mock, 1989), National Minority Campus Chronicle (NMCC) (Taylor, 1986), and American Association for Counseling and Development (AACD) (Pedersen, 1988).

UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO INITIATIVES

A. Institutional Policy

The University of Northern Colorado formally declared its commitment to diversity through the University's Mission, Goals, and Values Statement which was adopted by the UNC Board of Trustees in March, 1982. This declaration was further enhanced by a "Commitment to Diversity" document which was approved by the Board in March, 1984. This document enumerated 26 tasks to be completed by various constituencies of the University and addressed the major topics of overall coordination, evaluation, and reporting; employment procedures and affirmative action guidelines; recruitment and retention of students; cultural sensitivity; academic programs; recommendations of the Hispanic Concerns Task Force; and dissemination of reports and analyses.

In addition to this document, a "Commitment to Diversity" brochure was published for dissemination to prospective students.

Five years have now passed since these documents were published. One of the institutional objectives for the 1989-90 academic year will be to review and publish the progress made by the University in each of the major areas identified above, and to set new goals and objectives for the future.

B. Recruitment and Retention of Minority Students

Because of the Commitment to Diversity, the University has prioritized efforts for the recruitment and retention of minority students. These efforts have primarily been focused in the Office of Admissions, the Marcus Garvey Black Cultural Center, the Hispanic Cultural Center, and the Office of International Student Services.

The following list identifies some of the initiatives conducted by these various offices. Each of the strategies will be detailed to participants at the international conference and will be available to interested others.

Colorado Education Service and Development Association (CESDA) -- Programs for minority high school students sponsored throughout the state during the Fall months. UNC participates in more than 90 such programs.

Telephone and Home Visit Program -- Admissions Office personnel arrange meetings with students/parents in their homes to provide admission information and financial aid forms. Also, prospective students are telephoned weekly regarding their admission's status.

Denver Pubic School Student Profiles -- The Admissions Office acquires profiles on Denver minority seniors who are provided with information on UNC and its academic programs.

National Minority Scholars Award Program -- UNC information is provided to students in this program which includes 3,300 Hispanic students, 3,300 black students and 2,500 minority community college graduates.

Community College Visits -- Visits are made to community colleges in Colorado to meet with minority transfer students.

Secondary School Guidance Counselors and Principals -- Relationships and information flow between UNC and high school counselors and principals are built via meetings and many information communications.

Native Americans National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students (NSS-FNS) College Fair-- The program is designed to facilitate information exchange between the student and the UNC representative. Approximately 2,600 Black and Hispanic students will attend the Denver NSS-FNS Fair during Fall 1989.

UNC Minority Student Organizations -- Members of the Organization of Hispanic Students, Black Student Union, and the Support Group for Native Americans contact prospective students in their hometowns during Christmas and spring vacation.

Encourage a Student "Replacement" Campaign -- Minority student organizations are encouraged to sponsor a campaign in which graduating seniors and those students deciding not to return attempt to replace themselves with other students.

Personalized Letter to Parents of Prospective Students -- A personal, friendly letter of introduction will establish contact with a student's parent(s) and possibly channel some of their influence to their son's or daughter's application process.

Talent Search Agencies -- Educational Talent Search, Upward Bound, and Educational Opportunity Center personnel are contacted to stress the University's interest in minority students who have the qualities to be successful at UNC.

Blacks to the Future -- A University visitation program specifically designed for Black high school students. The program is sponsored by the Marcus Garvey Cultural Center and the Admissions Office.

Minority Alumni Network -- A network designed to provide role models for minority students. Activities and projects include compiling a list of UNC minority alumni, dinners or barbecues hosted by alumni for prospective UNC students, and a minority alumni recruitment manual and related materials.

Today's Students, Tomorrow's Teachers -- Minority students from Denver and Jefferson County Public Schools are involved in a program to encourage greater minority enrollment in teacher preparation programs.

Bright Futures Project -- A cooperative effort between the University of Northern Colorado and selected Weld County schools designed to assist students improve their academic skills and post-secondary career awareness.

UNC Faculty Involvement -- No improvement can be expected in decreasing the minority student attrition rate without faculty leadership and involvement. Admissions Office projects include a booklet for faculty advisors of minority students and printing a Faculty Early Warning System Form, where faculty notify UNC program practitioners of students facing difficulty.

Racial Awareness Program (RAP) -- A new program directed at increasing racial sensitivity on campus sponsored by the Admissions Office in cooperation with the Center for Human Enrichment. The program includes a series of racial awareness workshops and several excellent films and videotapes which are available to UNC staff and faculty.

UNC Minority Student Publications -- Specialized publications have been developed, such as: Recommended Mathematics Preparation for UNC; UNC Minority Alumni Recruitment Manual and Related Materials; Booklet for Faculty Advisors of Minority Students; Faculty Early Warning System Form; Minority Student Recruitment Program brochure; and Minority Student Booklet.

Project Teacher Find -- $1,000 renewable scholarships are given to minority students from Weld County schools who are enrolled in a teacher preparation program and who desire to return to their school district after graduation to teach.

Literature Review -- An overview of the current practices of minority recruitment and retention representing the general trends concerning these issues on a national level. In addition, the current minority recruitment and retention practices of three Colorado public universities are described, and a summary is included with recommendations and suggestions for an action plan making diversity an institutional commitment.

Black Freshman Network -- The Marcus Garvey Cultural Center sponsors a Black Freshman network in which faculty, staff, juniors, and seniors serve as mentors to Freshmen. Mentors are responsible for encouragement, resource identification, and month-to-month monitoring of their mentees' progress throughout their freshman year.

Lil' Brother, Lil' Sister Weekend -- A weekend recruitment activity for Black juniors and seniors interested in exploring university opportunities and campus life. Students are linked with current Black UNC students who serve as Big Brothers and Sisters.

Computer Monitoring System -- Through the use of computer stored data, the Marcus Garvey Cultural Center monitors student retention, academic standing, problems and successes. Letters of encouragement and recognition are sent out along with recommendations for tutoring or other services that may benefit the student.

Internship Program -- To provide career awareness and career opportunity, the Marcus Garvey Cultural Center has established a program for Black students who do not qualify for work study funding in which the Center sets up internship opportunities with companies and non-profit organizations.

Proud Parent's Program -- This program is designed to facilitate communication between the University and parents of Black students. The program is a support system which provides a means for parental involvement, volunteerism, and networking.

Access by Bridging Communities -- The purpose of the ABBC Program is to affect the University of Northern Colorado's success in diverse student recruitment and retention by bridging two target populations: diverse Denver communities and the Greeley/Weld community. The ultimate goal of this network of community organizations is to form an admissions advisory board as a vehicle for multi-cultural exchange to communicate the UNC commitment to diversity, and to encourage the community to be more receptive to the diverse student influx.

Hispanic Futures Visitation Day -- A university visitation program specifically designed for Hispanic high school students. Hispanic Future Days was sponsored by the UNC community, coordinated by UNC's Hispanic Cultural Center, and supported equally by the UNC and the Greeley community.

Minority Career Information Day -- An opportunity to talk with employers to better prepare minority students for the job market after graduation. Seminars were also offered on developing letters of application, resumes, follow-up letters, and interviewing prior to the Career Day.

Cultural Diversity Freshman Scholarship -- $1,000 renewable scholarships available to students who are in the top 25% of their class.

C. International Students

The commitment to diversity in higher education includes the influx of foreign or international students to American campuses. This paper will not address the specific counseling needs of the international student; however, these issues have been addressed very well by Herr (1987), Wehrly (1988), Fernandez (1988), and Manese, Sedlacek, and Leong (1988).

The International Student Services Office at the University of Northern Colorado has identified specific recruitment and retention strategies for identifying potential students and assisting those students once they matriculate onto the campus. In addition, UNC has recently signed formal agreements between the University and nine Teachers Colleges of Taiwan, Republic of China. This agreement outlines the conditions for both the exchange of students and the exchange of faculty members.

SUMMARY

Diversity on a college campus is a challenge to achieve and maintain on college campuses. This paper has attempted to provide some background on the importance of this topic and to share one institutional approach to recruiting and retaining cultural diversity. As Frank Rhodes so aptly said in the American Council on Education/Education Commission of the States joint report, One-Third of a Nation,

> Our goal as a nation must be nothing less than to eliminate, as soon as possible, the gaps that mark our racial and ethnic minority population as disadvantaged. We should seek over the next two decades to surpass the impressive progress we have made over the past 25 years--and to permit ourselves no backsliding. Our hope is that in 20 years, an examination of key social and economic indicators will reveal that America's minority population has attained a quality of life as high as that of the white majority. (1988, p. viii)

The Changing Face On American Campuses: Challenges For College Counselors

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, we have witnessed unprecedented changes in the characteristics of college students. These changes point to extensive implications for counselors in higher education. Among the facts and projections are:

1. College enrollment of traditional age students is expected to continue its decline (National Center for Education Statistics, 1988). However, its impact on colleges will be partially offset by increased participation of students age 25 and older, more women, and members of minority groups (Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1980).

2. The adult share of enrollment in higher education has grown steadily since 1970. Adults make up 45 percent of total enrollment and will grow to 50 percent by the 1990's. These adult students are serious degree seekers (The College Board News, 1988).

3. Most students have abandoned the tradition of following high school with four uninterrupted years of college. Rather, students are entering the job market and stretching their college study into more than four years (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1989).

4. Seventy percent of adult learners studying for college credit also work full time (The College Board News, 1988).

5. Full-time enrollment in higher education, which was 60 percent in 1977, is expected to decrease to 55 percent in 1997. Adult students will be primarily enrolled part-time (National Center for Education Statistics, 1988).

6. Transfers from community colleges, stopouts, and part-timers have a more difficult time completing college (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1989).

7. Women now constitute the great majority of reentry adult students (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1978) and by the year 2000, 52 percent of all undergraduate students will be women (Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1980).

8. It is estimated that by the year 2000, America will be a nation in which one of every three persons will be non-white (Hodgkinson, 1985). Any surge of new enrollments in higher education during the next two decades will be led by minorities (Hodgkinson, 1983) and by the year 2000, 25 percent of all undergraduate students

will be minorities of traditional age (Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1980).

The trend toward nontraditional students (minorities, women, and adult students) has already appeared in two-year colleges and is spreading to most state universities and even to elite universities which used to be dominated by younger students. This shift in college population has brought a variety of challenges to all of our existing services and traditions. While the challenges are placing new demands upon the institutions, it is not to be overlooked that nontraditional students also bring rewards, benefits and opportunities to the college community.

This paper discusses the needs of these students and implications for change in counseling center administration, counseling delivery, research and evaluation, and in counselor education and professional development. It also describes a few exemplary programs of a counseling center at an urban, state university attempting to respond to the challenges and the opportunities of the changing face on its campus.

NEEDS OF NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS

Needs Shared by All Non-traditional Students

In order to offer services and programs that are relevant and effective for non-traditional students, we first have to understand their needs. We find that today's students are particularly concerned with financial need, improving academic skills, and solidifying a career goal.

Just as social factors caused a change in the way students behaved in the 1960s, economic factors are causing changes today. At least half of all college students hold a job (Evangelauf, 1986) and 70 percent of the adult students work full time (The College Board News, 1988). Students are working because of spiraling tuition costs, greater career consciousness, and a reduction in the amount of student aid. A recent report revealed that borrowing constitutes 50 percent of all student financial aid, up from 20 percent in the 1970's (Lewis, 1988). Cutbacks in student financial aid packages will definitely result in stress on the part of the students.

Another area of major concern is the lack of preparation for academic work. Research data indicated that transfers from community colleges, stopouts, and part-timers have a more difficult time completing college (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1989). Minority students, including immigrants, often encounter academic difficulty because of language and cultural barriers. Poor performance is not only the direct result of inadequate preparation and deficient study skills, it also is often related to indecision about career goals or a lack of interest in the subject matter.

Special Needs of Minority Students

Minority students have issues unique to them which are culturally related. Their minority membership alone can be a source of stress. Smith (1985) has postulated that each individual has three levels of identity and that the meaning of any event lies within those three levels. Those three levels are : (1) the individual level of identity -- that part of the person that makes him or her unique, unlike any other person on earth; (2) the group level of identity, which consists of group-shared aspects of one's identity, for example, one's ethnic, cultural, or professional identity; and (3) the panhuman level, which focuses on universally shared aspects of one's identity. At the group level, race may exist as a source of stress; cultural expectations of a group may also have an influence on the stress that a person experiences. For example, individuals from an Hispanic or Asian background might feel pressures from their original reference groups of friends and relatives to not assimilate and acculturate the values of the mainstream American culture while they must negotiate mainstream American culture on a daily basis.

Higher education is often the place where minority students become keenly aware of institutional oppression for the first time. Recent racial incidences on campuses across the nation proved that racism still abounds on many college and university campuses. Minority students are still confronted with unfriendly peers, uncooperative staff and faculty, a lack of reference group, and a lack of role models. They are reminded of their historically secondary and unwanted status day-in and day-out in the environment where such hassles and inconveniences can strongly impede their learning and development.

Special Needs of Adult Students

Perhaps the greatest obstacles for adult students to have a successful experience in college are the demands of many roles of adulthood. While the traditional student's primary role is that of student, the adult student must often juggle several roles as student, parent, head of household, and wage-earner. A survey by Altmaier and McNabb (1984) generated a list of factors that are considered major obstacles for reentry adult students, which include: finances, time, family responsibilities, indecision regarding career goals, difficulty of managing multiple roles, inadequate study habits, distance from the university, fear of change, and lack of self-discipline. In summary, we are seeing a working and commuting and often part-time student body who are hard pressed by the necessities of keeping alive while trying to seek renewal through college education.

Adding to the confusion and difficulties, the well-ordered adult world is changing. By the year 2000, more people are expected to be living in a second marriage than in a first marriage (Duberman, 1975), and divorce and remarriage do not occur without psychological and physical costs. Besides changes in family and relationships, most adults are in or will be in career transition (Arbeiter, et. al., 1978). Based on a two-year national survey of 2,000 Americans, 25 years and older, Aslanian and Brickell (1980) found that half of the adults enrolled in higher education as a result of a change in career, marriage, parental status, or residence. Major changes in careers or lifestyles are usually more problematic for middle-aged adults than younger adults because of commitments and security needs (Herr and Cramer, 1988; Phillips, 1982). In order to concentrate on their studies and achieve their academic goals, these adults need specialized support to work through the traumas of transitions.

Special Needs of Reentry Women

Today's reentry women students are an exceedingly diverse group that does not fit the stereotype of the bored housewife dabbling in a little culture. They share many of the needs of adult students; however, they often experience more complex barriers. Issues often brought to our attention are: low self-esteem, a lack of family support, sex role stereotyping held by themselves and others in the learning environment, lack of role models in their aspired career fields, concern for child care, and campus safety. When these women are also poor and ethnic or racial minorities, they can expect even greater difficulties. Women who come from urban and lower social class backgrounds to attend college often lose the trust and support of their reference groups, while at the same time campus racism prevents them from forming another support system (Henry, 1985; Higgenbotham, 1985).

To compound the difficulties that already exist for them, reentry women were found to be far less likely to make use of available student services (Badenhoop & Johansen, 1980). Since most of them hold jobs and attend school part-time, it is conceivable that they either are unaware of the services or have limited time to explore the use of them.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CHANGE

Counseling Center Administration

Defining the Missions and Managing Change

Counseling centers need to reassess their goals to decide what their primary missions are. Only by agreeing on what might be the major demands and priorities of the short or near-term future, can the staff then reach consensus regarding their roles and functions. In one sense, counseling centers have a common goal today - serving fully the individual differences of students. The major question is how counseling centers can adjust themselves responsibly and appropriately to the changing conditions of their campuses.

By identifying the problems and prospects, counseling centers can take the future into their own hands. Counseling center administrators need to take more responsibilities in: (1) providing the vision that we can affect the future and not simply react to it; (2) supporting and managing the staff in their efforts to implement change; (3) putting greater emphasis than in the past on professional development and encouraging the staff to engage in on-going learning and renewal; (4) revising staffing structure in order to increase the responsibility and status of those working with nontraditional students and to attract high quality staff; (5) encouraging staff to investigate and adopt the latest technology useful to the counseling process.

Expanding Roles and Functions

Counseling centers need to implement and improve plans to serve more minorities, women, and adults, and to serve them more effectively. Rather than reacting to the presenting problem, they should take a proactive stance, meaning, they should go beyond providing remediation to also take part in the total social activism of promoting an environment that nurtures all students. They should be involved in policy making to remove barriers, and in designing innovative programs to help nontraditional students. In addition, they can be the change agent for the entire institution by modeling for other academic and student affairs' offices the revision of existing programs and strategies which are youth-oriented. By developing close relationships with other parts of the university, sharing resources and implementing complementary strategies, together they can enable the entire institution to achieve the goal of reaching all students regardless of their age and backgrounds. This strategy will also help counseling centers increase their visibility, enhance their status and gain respect, and possibly more budgetary support from the university administration.

Strengthening Career Counseling

Career counseling is key to students persisting in college and making the most out of their education. Although there is some evidence that the majority of university counselors consider vocational counseling less central in their job functions (Gelso, et. al. 1977; Graff, et. al., 1974), career counseling in the 21st century will be an inseparable component in the total counseling intervention geared toward the success of minorities, women, and adult students. Since the 1970's, various counseling centers have begun to offer adult career planning and development programs (Harrison & Entine, 1976). These programs need to be expanded with emphasis not only on home bound adults, but also on professional and graduate level adults who seek to improve their personal lives and enhance their careers. In the height of the women's movement, there was also a proliferation of women's centers in colleges across the nation. These centers give adult women a place to turn when they want to consider new options and careers or get specific information on job and educational opportunities. An appropriate strategy will be for counseling centers to work closely with the women's centers since their services complement each other.

Women and minority persons are currently less well-prepared for occupational success by the existing educational system than are non-Hispanic white men (Astin, 1982; Ehrhart & Sandler, 1987; Wetzel, 1987). Counseling centers need to reach out more systematically to these previously under-served groups to help them plan and prepare for work. Women and minority students need to be prepared to overcome barriers facing them in the market place and find career satisfaction in spite of discrimination. They also need to be encouraged to choose and persist in non-traditional majors such science, medicine, and engineering and to pursue advanced studies.

Counseling Delivery

Traditionally, the college counselor's function consists of providing one-to-one intervention to help students deal with social, academic, and vocational problems. This function is still a vital part of their responsibilities today; however, the counseling content, counseling process, and the counselor's role are changing because of the changing characteristics of their clientele.

Most Counseling Is Cross-cultural Counseling

Perderson (1978) provided a broad definition of cross-cultural counseling, "If we consider the value perspectives of age, sex role, life-style, socioeconomic status and other special affiliations as cultural, then we may well conclude that all counseling is to some extent cross-cultural" (p. 480). Considering the extreme diversity of the student body, the need for more attention to cross-cultural counseling will intensify and expand as a major challenge to counselors. According to Sue (1981), the culturally skilled counselor is one who is able to use differential approaches with different clients. A counselor sensitive to each client's language, values, class, and other culturally different characteristics will seek the most appropriate techniques available to meet the client's goals. We need to recognize cultural bias embedded in the theories and practices in which we have been indoctrinated (Jackson, 1987; McFadden, 1988; Vontress, 1988), and forge new patterns of counseling practice which are relevant and effective to the specific individuals. We also need to be conscious of our own learned attitudes and values regarding age, sex role, and various cultures. Rather than denying our own biases, which most are tempted to do, we need to look at them hard, scrutinize them, and be aware of how those biases affect the counseling process.

It is also necessary for counselors to find out which racial/ethnic and socioeconomic groups are represented on their campuses and get to know these students. Without a full grasp of the cultural tradition and context in which the client was raised and in which the client is currently being socialized, counselors will wrongly diagnose the client and mistakenly conceptualize the case. In addition to the groups identified above, counselors will encounter more and more recent immigrants, as increasing numbers of immigrants and second-generation immigrants are enrolling in the educational institutions. (Hodgkinson, 1985). These students add a new dimension to the minority groups and present an even greater challenge to counselors.

Group Work as a Strategy

Counselors need to develop flexible approaches to respond to the breadth of the demand. Due to fiscal consideration, administrators have always preferred counselors to get involved in group counseling and preventive work. Surveys also showed that outreach and preventive programs are in demand by students (Goldschmitt, et. al., 1981; Leemaster, 1981). It is expected that outreach, group work, and consultation will receive more emphasis as counselors resolve the problem of limited resources but greater need of students. While traditional one-to-one therapy tends to serve the purpose of remediation, teaching and training through a group format could be a more important avenue to meet students' needs. These activities not only will reach more students in more economical and time efficient ways, but will also reach those students who tend to shun away from counseling. Most counselors know that it is rare for Black or Hispanic males to seek one-to-one counseling. Workshops and groups tend to be less threatening and may reach these students more easily. As minority students tend to experience group-related stress, support groups and workshops can serve as a vital intervention to provide healing and regaining of hope. Group strategies are often effective for women since women tend to value relationships and interpersonal support (Gilligan, 1982; Hotelling & forest, 1985). Schlossberg and Kent (1979) also emphasized the importance of interpersonal support in helping women to gain a sense of control.

Counselor as Disseminator of Resources

Frequently, we find that inherent in the issues of nontraditional students are their lack of information rather than a deficiency of skills or abilities. It is imperative that counselors have the basic knowledge about the policies and procedures of the institution, about career resources, resources for academic skills improvement, and various resources where women may obtain assistance with regard to issues such as rape, domestic violence, and emergency food and shelter.

Since financial need is such a pressing concern for today' s students, counselors should be able to provide accurate information. They need to establish a reliable referral network with the specialists in the financial aid office in order to keep abreast with current happenings and make appropriate referrals. In the process of helping nontraditional students, counselors need to be sensitive to the fact that clients' presenting problems such as stress, depression, and lack of motivation may very possibly be related to their financial concerns. Since time involved in counseling sessions is also potential time to work for an income, students may not be interested in long term therapy; rather, they may just need to unload their frustrations and get some information and directions about solving their immediate problems.

Research and Evaluation

The implication of the changing societal trend for the counseling profession is enormous and it particularly points to an urgent need for new research in the field. Almost all research-based data concerning counseling theory and practice are obsolete mainly because previous research was based mostly on white, middle class males. Most of the research on students' psychosocial development and moral development was based on the traditional age group, and thus inapplicable to many of today's students. Likewise, much of the adult development research was based on males. We need more research on today's nontraditional students -- adults, reentry women, and different minority or ethnic populations -- particularly on their mental health problems, behavioral characteristics, value systems, expectations of counseling, and counseling techniques likely to be useful with them. The ultimate goal is to develop culturally specific counseling models.

We cannot continue to operate as if the student population has not changed. We cannot offer programs and services to nontraditional students assuming that we know what is best for them. As a part of the research, we need to collect clients' evaluation of and feedback about the counseling process. Evaluation needs to be a built-in component when designing and implementing new programs.

Counselor Education and Professional Development

Cross-cultural Content as Priority

Ponterotto and Casas (1987) found that only a few of the counselor education programs in the United States are identified as multiculturally-sensitive training programs. In the light of the needs presented by nontraditional students, it is evident that counselors trained in traditional theories and techniques will be inadequate to deal with the major counseling issues presented by a diverse clientele. It is time for a group of education leaders, joined by practitioners and administrators, to examine the total counselor training process and to search for a new core of study and a central thrust for training which draw upon the traditional subjects as well as emerging issues. They need to ask some very basic questions:

1. How can the curriculum be more sharply focused and yet more fully integrated?

2. How can cultural and developmental constructs help us translate theory and research into curriculum and training programs?

3. How can we help counselor trainees develop skills in such gender-sensitive issues as rape, domestic violence, and incest?

4. How can we design and emphasize experiential learning activities for counselor trainees to acquire cross-cultural skills that will help them overcome the racial prejudices, sexual stereotypes, and insensitivities toward older students?

5. How can we define and evaluate the competencies of a generalist, which is the role of a college counselor?

Greater Emphasis on Professional Development

Future counselors will have to spend an unprecedented amount of time in on-going professional development, particularly in the area of multicultural skills. Besides reading current research and literature, the best way to acquire the skills is through experiential learning. There is a wide array of methods to gain cross-cultural experiences. They include: structured training workshops, meeting minority students at various places where they congregate, getting to know them through workshops and other outreach activities, becoming involved in their organizations, serving as advisors for various student groups, participating in the events of various ethnic groups, and networking with community cultural organizations. Taylor (1989) specified 20 areas of cultural diversity to which therapists need to be sensitive, including family structure, important events in the life cycle, and artistic and musical values and tastes. Counselors can refer to the list as a guideline when they interact with and study the various racial/ethnic groups. The optimal goal is to "master the knowledge and develop the skills necessary to feel comfortable and communicate effectively, first, with people of any culture encountered, and second, in any situation involving a group of people of diverse cultural backgrounds" (Hoopes, 1979, p. 21).

FACING THE CHALLENGES – AN EXAMPLE OF COUNSELING DELIVERY

Wayne State University, located in metropolitan Detroit, Michigan, is a typical university immensely affected by the current demographic change of college students. In the fall term of 1988, its 31,000 student body were 53 percent part-time and 47 percent full-time. The median age was 28, with more than half of all students being women. Sixty-eight percent of the total enrollment were white and 32 percent were minorities. The fact that more than half of all students at Wayne State University received financial aid underscores the financial need of today's students. The official counseling center, which is called University Counseling Services (UCS), has undergone drastic restructuring in recent years and has developed a set of highly diversified programs intended to respond to current and future needs. Services specifically for nontraditional students are offered through the three subunits described below:

The Reentry to Education Program -- Offers Individual counseling and support groups to reentry students. Provides information regarding admission, career planning, financial aid, and other academic skills support services.

Women's Resource Center -- Offers individual and group counseling as well as programming which addresses women's special needs.

Minority Resource Center -- Offers counseling and support to minority students and members of the university community. Outreach and awareness programs are the major emphasis of its services.

Within UCS, there are also the Achievement Center which offers walk-in individual help and workshops related to improving study skills, Reading and Study Skills Lab which provides computer-assisted learning modules, and other subunits including: Office of Assessment, Psychological Counseling Office, Educational Resources for Students with Disabilities, and Life/Career Lab. Through a strong referral network, students are receiving coordinated and comprehensive assistance.

UCS counselors are active in providing workshops and consultations to students, staff, and faculty, participating in university-wide policy-making committees, serving as mentors for nontraditional students and advisors to student organizations, and implementing innovative programs upon students' request. UCS has also developed a close relationship with faculty and academic departments. Faculty and administrators have been involved in a freshman course coordinated by a counselor, and are active supporters and participants of UCS activities such as the mentor program.

All UCS programs and services, including individual counseling, have an evaluative component. It was through students' feedback and evaluation that we found that the support group for reentry students has been a successful intervention. Based on Schlossberg's (1984) theory and model of counseling adults in transition, counselors lead the discussions and guide the participants to work through issues related to changes in their careers or personal lives. Therapeutic effect often ensued after students had become aware of the universality of the issues inherent in transition and gained insight into their own problems.

CONCLUSION

Higher education is in a time of great challenge as the changing student body is bringing forth more diverse and complex needs. In order to offer a vital educational experience to all students, institutions need to respond with creativity, sensitivity and efficiency. While counselors alone cannot deal with all the demands implied by the needs, they can, however, contribute in significant and important ways to the total responsive effort made by the institution. Since the trend of increasing enrollments of nontraditional students has been present for the last two decades and has intensified in recent years, it is assumed that if there has not been an institutional response, it is due to a lack of will rather than a lack of knowledge. Therefore, this paper has reiterated some of the crucial needs and issues, and identified directions in which they might be further elaborated. The intention has been to contribute to the ongoing discussion and to stimulate decisive actions.

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THE WHOLE-SCHOOL APPROACH IN SCHOOL GUIDANCE

VILMA D'ROZARIO

ABSTRACT

This paper describes School Guidance as it is carried out in Singapore. Called Pastoral Care, the background to why school guidance is now national educational policy in Singapore is outlined. The paper goes on to describe Pastoral Care in terms of its organization and delivery in Singapore schools. The paper ends with reflections on future challenges for school guidance in Singapore schools.

Part I: SCHOOL GUIDANCE - SINGAPORE STYLE

We call it Pastoral Care. This term is British in origin, having its etymological roots in Christianity. Pastoral Care, today, however, has nothing to do with religion. The practice of Pastoral Care originated in British boarding schools, where the Housemaster assumed the paternalistic role of mentor and care-giver, setting the example and guiding the young members of his house "along the right path" in their development towards adulthood. Approximately forty years ago, with the formation of large comprehensive schools in Britain, Pastoral Care took on a more disciplining function, endorsing the role of form tutors whose aim it was to get to know their group of students well, thus reaching out to the masses, preventing alienation and ensuring order. Pastoral Care, today, however, has taken on a more developmental function, that of developing the child's potential to the fullest by educating him not only academically, but equipping him with the necessary lifeskills to become an adjusted, happy individual who copes well with daily living and contributes to society. In Singapore, we have adopted the latter definition of Pastoral Care and we use the term, "Pastoral Care" to also embrace Career Guidance. Fully endorsed by the Singapore government in 1987, Pastoral Care is now being carried out as a proactive whole-school policy in approximately 30 secondary schools.

In late 1986, Singapore's Minister for Education and twelve school principals visited acknowledged good schools in the United Kingdom and United States and commended their efforts in ensuring not only their students' academic development but a total development of the individual in the personal, social and vocational aspects of their maturation. In a report which followed, called, Towards Excellence in Schools (1987), Pastoral Care and Career Guidance were identified as major weak areas in the Singapore education system. The report noted that in Singapore, there was an absence of close co-ordination between teachers involved in discipline, and personal counselling; lack of professionally trained personnel to act as counsellors and proper rooms for personal counselling; plus a lack of information on careers for pupils. Thus the strong recommendation to have a well-planned comprehensive Pastoral Care and Career Guidance programme in each school to cater to the total development of the pupil.

But, what is the Singaporean adolescent like? What are his concerns and does he need Pastoral Care? The Singapore Advisory Council on Youth (1988) has this to say about Singaporean youth:

> "... diligent ... and examination oriented. (However) ... unsure of themselves ... lack of a clear sense of direction and purpose in life. ... The fear of losing out to others underlines Singapore youth's attitude towards education, work and related areas. They have little time for, or seldom express, interest in recreational and cultural pursuits."

This picture of the Singaporean adolescent is real. Singapore society is very achievement-oriented and at a tender age, Singaporean children egged on by ambitious parents, vie for top academic positions in school, resulting in stress related problems. Recent statistics have shown that more teenagers are seeking psychiatric help nowadays due to high parental expectations, unhappy homes and examination anxiety (Straits Times, 14 April 1989).

A study led by Thomas (1985) on stress as a factor in the education of adolescents found that the three most frequently cited forms of stressors on our adolescents were homework; peer pressure as well as competition; and parental pressure in terms of high parental expectations of school test results, justification of poor results to parents and parents' comparison of results obtained with siblings and peers.

A survey on adolescent problems led by Khor (1987) confirmed that the most pressing concerns secondary school teenagers have were academically related. Khor's findings have been reinforced in a more recent study by Chua, Heng, Loke & Ng (1988) on 825 junior college students. This survey confirmed that junior college students too, were under academic stress. Another study by Low, Quah and Yeap (1989) reported that 80-100% of their sample of adolescents experienced loneliness and did not seem to know how to use whatever free time they had productively.

The structure of the family in Singapore is largely nuclear where oftentimes both parents work. Absence of parents due to demands of work as well as the rise in marital separation has contributed to decreased parental support during a child's formative years. Thus many children have tended to become alienated from traditional family life and values. Though still relatively infrequent, teachers have noted an increase in the occurence of gangsterism, extortion, theft, vandalism and inhalant abuse in schools. A newspaper article (Straits Times, 29 November 1987) reported a study by Khor that teenagers were dating earlier and were more liberal in their attitude towards love and sex.

Economic progress brings about a fluctuating job market. In order to make informed career choices that would land them a job that promises satisfaction, students would need to make accurate self-assessments, be aware of job opportunities and be familiar with job-search and job-survival skills. A survey on adolescent career needs showed that, on the contrary, teenagers had no career direction, had unrealistic salary expectations and were poor in job application and interview skills (Khor, 1987). In the same survey, it was also found that students preferred consulting friends about their choice of careers and would approach teachers, who are sources of more reliable and accurate career information, last! A more recent study on career development of adolescents by Tan (1988) confirms these findings and added that adolescents showed a general lack of self-knowledge as well as work knowledge, a reluctance to engage in career planning and a lack of readiness to crystallize a career preference. The study continued to show that adolescents were weak in career decision-making skills.

These recent studies on adolescent problems, stress and loneliness, attitudes towards dating and marriage, and career development conducted by the Institute of Education have strongly supported the Ministry of Education's policy to promote Pastoral Care and Career Guidance programmes in the schools. Indeed, a planned programme cf care and guidance addressing areas of adjustment to home and family life, coping with school, relating to friends and adults, adolescent sexuality, values, decision making, goal-setting, stress and time management and career exploration would enhance the overall development of students.

Piloting Pastoral Care

In response to the call for Pastoral Care in schools, the Ministry of Education designated 17 schools, to take part in a pilot project (Sep 87 to Sep 88) to implement Pastoral Care. The aim of this pilot phase was to encourage the evolution of individual pastoral programmes to meet the specific needs of each school. These systems would serve as models for more widescale implementation of Pastoral Care in the future. The programmes in the 17 pilot schools have been monitored and valuable feedback has been obtained on the feasibility of the programmes as well as in what way they are progressing. On the whole, experiences have been positive and so a further 12 pilot schools were phased in this year. A further 19 schools are to become project schools for Pastoral Care in 1990.

The process of piloting Pastoral Care in schools began with the training of principals and teachers who wold take on key roles in the pastoral set-up of the school. Training was conducted first by British consultants in Pastoral Care and Career Guidance, and then later through ad hoc courses run by the Ministry of Education and modular courses run by the Institute of Education.

A process of needs assessment in each school then, led to the establishing of the schools aims in Pastoral Care. As pastoral programmes need to reflect the uniqueness of the student populations they serve, each school's specific objectives and thus programme differed in varying degrees. However, it has been observed that schools placed importance on such universal aims as promoting self-esteem; developing self-discipline and self awareness, whilst relating this to one's future contributions to society in terms of a career and/or community involvement; learning practical lifeskills to deal more effectively with everyday living; facilitating the transition from school to the world of work; engendering social responsibility and mutual respect for others; developing communication skills, and initiating and strengthening home-school links.

Organising Pastoral Care

As we acknowledge that Pastoral Care should be inherent in all aspects of school life, it follows that all staff must necessarily have pastoral responsibilities. Each school's pastoral system is organised according to clearly defined structures representing the responsibility and relationships of each person in the pastoral system. The idea was to enable smaller groups of students to come under the care of a teacher who would take on a caring as well as guidance role. Most of the schools piloting Pastoral Care have adopted the Horizontal Year/Level system where students are grouped according to their level. Each level is sub-divided into smaller form-classes under the care of a form-teacher. (See Appendix I). The form-teacher is usually, but not exclusively the pastoral tutor. Some schools have combined this structure with the Vertical House system where students are allocated into large groups of about 200 to 300, each under the care of a House Head. This house system brings together students of various ages and is used by this school to promote social interaction. Level Coordinators as well as House Heads have the responsibility of coordinating the pastoral programme, supporting and acting as consultant for Level or House tutors. In one school, the supervision of the entire pastoral system came under a Vice-Principal (Pastoral Care).

The pastoral tutor, sometimes more fondly known as Group Parent or E.T. (Enrichment Time) Guardian has the responsibility of knowing each student of his tutorial group well so as to facilitate close monitoring of student progress and a regular assessment of student needs. This, in turn, creates the opportunity for each student to identify well with at least one teacher, building a sense of self-confidence and trust within the school system. Pastoral tutors in some schools take care of the same tutor group through two years of their secondary education, thus making it possible to know their pupils well. In this respect, a tutor, in gaining more rapport with his group, finds the managing and organizing of learning smoother. The tutor, too, plays a socializing role through teaching as well as organising activities to develop students' personal and social development.

Delivering Pastoral Care

Pastoral Care in Singapore schools is mostly delivered via a Pastoral Curriculum which consists of planned activities in Personal and Social Education as well as Career Guidance. These activities cover the whole of secondary education and are developmental in nature. The activities, usually carried out through group work, encourage the development in lifeskills -- personal, social, educational and vocational. Tailored to meet the specific needs of students, these activities are delivered through structured experiences like role play, brainstorming, discussion and values clarification exercises. Popular themes covered by the pastoral curriculum are self-awareness, caring for and relating to others, study skills, time and stress management, decision-making and problem-solving, as well as academic and career guidance. Called by different names in different schools, for example "Personal and Social Education", "Community Period", "Enrichment Time", "Lifeskills Programme", etc., these programmes are either structured into curriculum time or carried out after school hours. In both cases, the pastoral curriculum is mandatory for all students. Some schools have chosen a 40 minute period each week and others are organised for 1 1/2 hours every other week, devoting 45 minutes to structured activities and using the remaining 45 minutes for informal interaction between pastoral tutor and students. A few schools have attempted to consciously plan for the integration of Pastoral Care across the school curriculum.

Most schools offering Pastoral Care have, through their tutor system, established the environment for more effective one-to-one contact with students. These individual encounters have served a developmental function, where tutor and student may be engaged in negotiation of the student's progress, potential and aspirations, thus building better rapport between tutor and student, enhancing self-confidence and facilitating goal-setting. Pastoral casework has also served a remedial function, for example, in remedial work in an academic area, or, in counselling a student with a personal problem.

Monitoring and Evaluating Pastoral Care

All schools have kept up an on-going assessment of their progress by gathering feedback from teacher as well as student interviews and questionnaires. Where Pastoral Care seems to be working well, regular scheduled meetings between level coordinators and tutors have been held, and feedback used in future programme development.

What's working in Pastoral Care

Teachers have expressed that structuring the curriculum to enable contact with students other than for academic reasons, either within or outside curriculum time has given them the opportunity to know their students better. In schools where

Pastoral Care is accepted as an integral part of the curriculum by the whole school, increased rapport and understanding has been experienced amongst students, between students and teachers, amongst teachers, and between management, academic staff and students. A sense of pride and ownership of their own pastoral programme is also evident. This in turn has created a more positive school ethos creating the environment for all-round development. On the whole, it has been observed that students in the pilot schools are more articulate and expressive of their feelings and opinions now then before the programme was initiated. The students have also expressed that they have enjoyed the sessions which have helped them relate better to their teachers and to each other. The teachers have observed that their being "frontline caregivers" or being the first point of contact when students have problems has helped greatly to delineate and facilitate an effective referral system within the school.

Future Challenges in Pastoral Care

With the introduction of Personal and Social Education and Career Guidance through activity-based groupwork emphasizing the importance of self-disclosure, experiential learning and the group process, teachers need to practise new pedagogies. Not all teachers have practised these in the past or are comfortable with them now. Confidence in these pedagogies must be built up. This has great implications for training which will continue to be activity-based and aimed at bringing teachers through the group process and group experiential learning themselves, thus making them more aware of and sensitive to these pedagogies and how their students may respond to them. Building self-esteem and confidence as group leaders and facilitators is also another aim of training.

The role of the teacher in Pastoral Care emphasizes a caring and guidance function. Teachers have been, and many still are, convinced that their role is solely that of an imparter of knowledge. Equal emphasis on the role of pastoral care-giver to that of academician needs endorsement by all teachers. A higher percentage of belief in and committment towards Pastoral Care needs to be felt amongst some teachers. This has implications on the importance given to this policy of care by the government, educational administrators, teacher trainers and society at large. Unless there is a continued nationwide emphasis in schools of Pastoral Care being an essential ingredient of whole-school policy, teachers and students are not going to give sufficient support to the pastoral endeavour. Parents, too, need to show greater support for Pastoral Care in our schools. Innovative programmes to encourage more home-school liaison and parent-school participation need to be developed and piloted. Teachers with greater pastoral responsibilites must be officially recognised and rewarded.

Fully integrating Personal and Social Education and Career Guidance across the school curriculum would be another challenge. Special efforts need to be made at the school level, to integrate desired pastoral objectives into the academic and non-academic schemes of work. In this way, Pastoral Care would not become an academic skills-teaching exercise but a part of schooling, and thus a part of growth and learning.

More coordination between the current Moral Education programme and Pastoral Care needs to be done to reduce the overlap of topics and issues discussed in both programmes. Perhaps, exploring the possibility of integrating the two programmes would be a welcome and enriching innovation.

Developing an effective school-specific Pastoral Curriculum is a challenge to all schools. Programme relevance based on the process of needs assessment, programme planning and production of resource materials requires a committment of time, effort and finances. Whole-school efforts have already produced highly commendable programme resources -- this enthusiasm and practice has to carry over to other schools. Separate resource centres for Personal and Social Education and Career Guidance need to be set up either centrally or zonally to serve schools in resource development. Many schools have also expressed the need for space in carrying out group activities. Provision for rooms to conduct these activities in and for student counselling need to be envisaged in the building of new schools.

Conclusion

Given the short space of time between the conception of "School Guidance - Singapore Style" to date, Pastoral Care in schools has come a long way and we believe, in the right direction.

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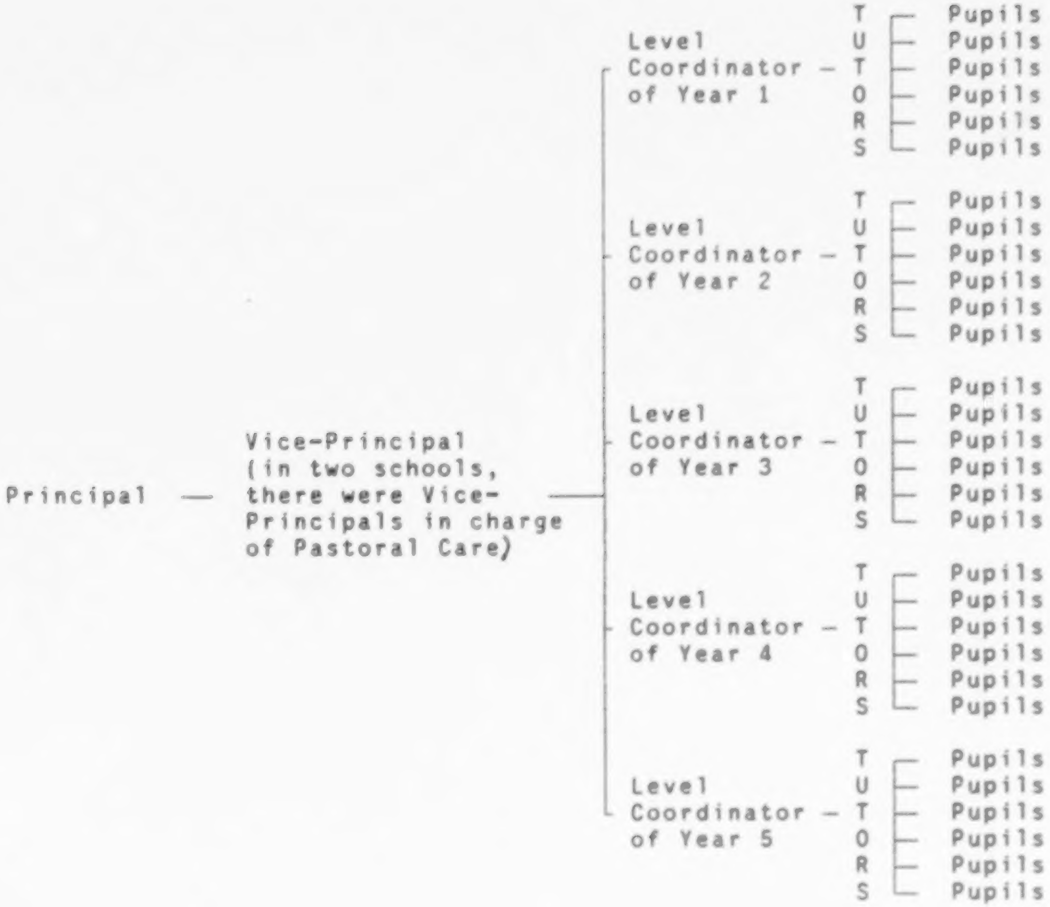
APPENDIX I

Horizontal Year/Level System


Principal
Vice-Principal (in two schools, there were Vice-Principals in charge of Pastoral Care)
Level Coordinator of Year 1
TUTORS
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Level Coordinator of Year 2
TUTORS
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Level Coordinator of Year 3
TUTORS
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Level Coordinator of Year 4
TUTORS
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Level Coordinator of Year 5
TUTORS
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils
Pupils

THE WHOLE-SCHOOL APROACH IN SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Part II: The Practice of Career Guidance in Singapore

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Introduction

This paper gives an overview of the practice of career guidance in Singapore. It traces the path that career guidance has taken from the time of its most rudimentary forms, to the present where a more structured developmental approach is adopted. In its present form, career guidance is set in the context of pastoral care, and where pastoral care is implemented in the secondary schools, it is part of the curriculum. This paper also outlines the role of the Institute of Education, where much of the training of teachers and the development of career guidance materials is taking place.

Career Guidance: Past Scenarios

The introduction of pastoral care and career guidance into the Singapore school system marks the watershed in the history of education in Singapore as far as guidance services for pupils is concerned. In its quest for excellence for the nation, education is seen as the key to national development. Towards this end, the government of Singapore is committed to providing a system of education which will develop each child to the fullest potential. In order to achieve this objective, pastoral care was introduced in 1987. Hitherto, the emphasis in the curriculum was on the academic subjects, but the government realised that in order to maximise the potential of children, something extra was needed, this "something" was the attention to pupils' personal-social and vocational needs, hence the infusion of pastoral care and career guidance into the secondary school curriculum.

Past Scenarios In Career Guidance

It can be said that a very rudimentary form of "career guidance" was already in existence in Singapore since the late 1970's. The necessity of providing for the educational and vocational needs of early school leavers who were less academically inclined was felt a decade ago when there was a low rate of literacy and a high rate of attrition amongst school pupils. The Report on the Ministry of Education (1978) pointed out that only 71% of pupils entering Primary One eventually made it to secondary school, compared with 92% in Taiwan and 100% in Japan. As an outcome of this report the entire educational system was revamped. Amongst other adjustments the new educational system permitted weaker pupils to complete their primary schooling in eight instead of six years, in addition, pupils could now also have the option of continuing their education in vocational institutes which would equip them with trade skills. An equivalent structure is seen in the secondary school. Weak students in addition to other adjustments, are given five years to complete the 'O' Level Examination, or four years to obtain the Normal Stream Certificate or the NSC, after which additional skills training is obtainable at the vocational institutes. It is also possible for students to opt for vocational training after two years of secondary education. Seen from the Government's point of view where the concern was to equip its young school leavers with employable skills, one could say that a "problem-solving" approach to "career guidance" had been implemented since the late 1970's.

In addition to the Government's provision for vocational training, there was ad hoc career guidance since the 1980's - each school did what it thought was best for its students. The kind of career guidance that was offered in schools took the form of career talks by guest speakers which were usually given to graduating classes, as their need was perceived to be more urgent. Other activities included careers club (although not all schools had such a club), industrial visits, attendance at careers exhibition, viewing of films and the distribution of reading materials on various jobs. The occasional individual careers counseling for pupils and even a temporary work experience program was available in some schools.

It soon became evident that such sporadic attempts at promoting career guidance would not be satisfactory in helping students develop their sense of career awareness. This was confirmed by the results of a survey conducted in 1985 in which more than 60% of the 145 schools polled expressed an urgent need for career guidance; responses from 75% - 80% of the pupils indicated a need to find out more about specific jobs, and what types of jobs they were suited for, while 61% wanted to know how to prepare for a job interview, and 37% wanted help in writing a job application letter.

Career Guidance within the Context of Pastoral Care: Today's Scenario

The model for career guidance which was proposed to the Ministry of Education had the following features (Watts, 1988).

1. In terms of a philosophical framework, career guidance will adopt a developmental approach with a base in the curriculum. It will be aimed at facilitating the development of pupils' self-concept, abilities, and skills with a view "to develop their capacity to make informed decisions about their educational and career plans".

2. In terms of its implementation, it will be delivered through the pastoral care curriculum. At least one period a week will be set aside whereby a program of social, personal and careers education is to be carried out.

3. The key personnel will be the pastoral care tutor, with Year Heads having the task of monitoring the program at each level; two senior teachers are to be responsible for coordination across school levels, with vice-principals and principals lending their support. Parents are also to be involved in the program.

4. In terms of resources, these are plans to develop multi-media information materials and self-assessment tests, including the possibility of micro-computer packages. School record systems (student profiles) are to be reviewed and developed. A central careers library is to be established and there are plans to set up more extensive programmes.

The Role of the Institute of Education

The Institute of Education is the only teacher preparation institute in Singapore. As such it has the task of ensuring that preservice as well as inservice teachers receive training in pastoral care and career guidance so that they will be able to discharge their duties and responsibilities expected of them as pastoral care tutors and coordinators. A number of developments are underway, namely, a computerised career guidance package, self-assessment tests and a career self-awareness package. The prototype of the computerised package "JOBS" (Job Orientation Backup System) was completed in 1988. Aimed at secondary and junior college students JOBS allows these students to discover their inclinations and also to develop a sense of career self-awareness through eight modules of questions clustered under three domains - Understanding Self, Understanding the World of Work, with the third domain, Making Informed Career Decisions bridging the two. As these are interactive modules the user is able to work from a self-evaluation module to a job information set, and back to self evaluation again. It should be emphasised at this point that the main orientation of "JOBS" is towards career exploration and not career prediction; "JOBS" is also not a replacement for the pastoral care tutor or counselor. At the end of the session the student is presented with a job listing that matches the user's personality profile. Academic qualifications needed for a job as well as specific job information can also be called up. At the juncture when the student receives the listing he is advised in the program to discuss the options and his interests with the pastoral care tutor, in the light of other factors, viz-a-viz academic grades, demand-and-supply of the job market, etc.

The theoretical framework of JOBS is based on the developmental self-concept theory of Donald Super and John Holland's Career Typology Theory of vocational behaviour. Preliminary investigations conducted by the Institute of Education has confirmed the construct validity of Holland's theory for Singapore. Encouraged by this result the team then went on to develop an indigenous instrument based on Holland's theory; this instrument has been tentatively named Career Profile Inventory. CPI has so far gone through 3 pilot tests. The results of the first pilot test on a sample of 280 teachers revealed six distinct factors (RIASEC) which further confirmed the construct validity of Holland's theory in the Singapore context. The revised CPI has just been subjected to a third pilot testing; it is hoped that the instrument will be ready for validation with some 120 occupational groups after final revisions are made in the near future. When this phase is completed, field testing of the CPI will be conducted in a number of secondary schools and junior colleges. The entire project, which has been granted R and D status, is expected to be completed by the end of 1991.

The career self-awareness package entitled "Me and My Future - A Career Guidebook" was concurrently developed alongside "JOBS". The package aimed at enhancing the career self-concept of lower secondary school pupils. Some of the activities required pupils to go through self-assessment questions developed along the lines of Holland's RIASEC. In general, this package was well received by teachers, and pupils also felt that their awareness of careers and careers exploration was enhanced.

Conclusion

Career guidance in Singapore is still in its fledgling stage; there are several exciting things yet to come. One thing is certain, that is, given the proper structures, adequate support, materials, resources, and trained personnel, career guidance will in the near future, become a full-fledged service initiating pupils into a better understanding of themselves, careers and the world of work.

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TRENDS AND ISSUES IN TEACHER COUNSELOR EDUCATION IN SINGAPORE

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Introduction

Until recent years, school guidance had been given low priority in the education scene in Singapore. Due to a persistent teacher shortage in the Republic, the main thrust in teacher education for many decades had always been the training of teachers for classroom teaching rather than the preparation of specialist teachers to look after guidance and counselling. As a result few schools have trained personnel to plan and implement guidance activities for the pupils.

The turn of events came, however, in late 1986, when the educational authorities publicly acknowledged the need for guidance and counselling in the schools and the Ministry of Education started a pilot scheme to implement Pastoral Care and Career Guidance in 29 secondary schools. As Pastoral Care in the Singapore context adopts the principle of developmental guidance involving the whole teaching staff, this meant that the Institute of Education, being the country's one and only teacher training institute, was suddenly faced with the challenging task of having to train a big number of teacher counselors for the schools within a short time. This paper describes our attempt to cope with this task and discusses issues related to the training of teacher counsellors in Singapore.

The Issue

This sudden and sharp increase in the demand for trained teacher counsellors also brought with it a very basic issue - what kind of teacher counsellors do we need in the schools and what are they expected to do?

Being a late comer in the scene of guidance and counselling, Singapore has the advantage of learning from the experience and hind sight of countries where school guidance and pupil counselling are well established features in the school system. In the US and Canada, for example, although the situation varies from state to state, one can observe a general trend of specialization in the provision of guidance and counselling. Thus many American and Canadian schools have full-time school counsellors whose main responsibility is to give educational guidance and personal counselling to the pupils. These specialist teachers are further assisted by visiting school social workers, school psychologists and school psychiatrists who provide specialized care to pupils facing more serious problems (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1985; Tennyson, Miller, Skovholt & Williams, 1989; Thomas, 1989).

On the other hand, the trend in UK is towards a generic approach in proving care for the pupils. Thus, in the British classic pastoral system, all form tutors are frontline care givers charged with facilitating the overall development of the pupils placed under their care. This is often done through the implementation of a pastoral curriculum known as the Personal Social Education (Hamblin, 1978, 1986; Lang & Marland, 1985) The responsibilities of these tutors are many - conducting group guidance activities, offering individual counselling to pupils, collaborating with colleagues and working with parents. To discharge such a wide range of responsibilities, these teachers need a repertoire of guidance knowledge and counselling techniques in addition to teaching skills.

Learning from the experiences of the United States and the United Kingdom, what then, would be a viable model of pupil guidance for Singapore schools? It is obvious that in Singapore we cannot afford the luxury of a high level of specialization in the provision of care for the development and welfare of pupils. Nevertheless, a generic approach in providing care has its limitations as we realize that it is neither possible nor realistic to expect classroom teachers to be experts in everything - teaching, pastoral care, counselling and career guidance - all four in one! In fact, we have observed that in many British schools, while pastoral care is being provided for by the classroom teachers, career guidance is often given to the pupils by visiting career officers who are specifically trained for the job.

After much deliberations, it was felt that perhaps a more feasible approach would be to introduce a two-tier guidance system in the schools providing a kind of three-level intervention catering to the needs of the pupils, namely, wellness promotion, anticipatory guidance and crisis intervention. The first two levels of intervention are to be provided by the generalists in the school- namely, the classroom teachers who are also equipped with basic guidance skills to function as frontline career-givers. The third function is to be performed by the few key teachers trained in counselling and programme-development skills to deal with more specific and pressing problems faced by the students. Working side by side, the two groups of teachers perform different functions which complement each other. Because of the difference in their functions, they also require different skills and differential training as summed up in the following table:

Table 1

Functions of Teacher Counsellors and Needed Skills

Level of Intervention	Major Concerns	Training Needed
Wellness Promotion	training pupils in life skills e.g. study skills, values clarification, self-management, Communication skills	life skills training
Anticipatory guidance	dealing with transition and life changes	guidance skills to help pupils master developmental tasks, stressful life events & career decision making
Crisis Intervention	short-term counselling for learning and personal problems	counselling skills networking of support services

In view of our constraint of manpower in the schools, it is unrealistic to have full-time specialist teachers in the schools as in the case of the U.S. and Canada. Thus while frontline care givers carry a full teaching load in addition to their pastoral duties, the specialist teachers are to be given a lighter teaching load to allow them time to carry out their specialized responsibilities (D'Rozario & Chia, 1988; Lang, 1988).

The Task

Having resolved the issue of the type of teacher counsellors needed, the immediate task facing the Institute of Education was that of training a great number of pastoral care mentors (generalists) and a much smaller, selected group of teacher counsellors (specialists) to provide the three-level intervention described above.

To face this new challenge, the Institute introduced in 1987 a specially designed part-time in-service training programme known as the Specialist Diploma Programme in Pastoral Care, Counselling and Career Guidance. Keeping in mind the wide range of training needs of our teachers, this Specialist Diploma Programme is designed to provide basic training for the frontline care givers as well as in-depth training for a select group of key teachers to assume leadership roles in the planning, implementation and evaluation of guidance and counselling in the schools.

The Training Programme

This Specialist Diploma Programme is organized on a modular approach. It comprises eight modules of 30 hours each, adding up to a total of 240 hours of course work plus at least 60 hours of practicum work in the schools. The modules are arranged in sequential order at three levels.

Level One courses are foundation courses to meet the general needs of classroom teachers who are preparing to be frontline care givers (generalists) in the pastoral care setup in their schools. These courses are intended to provide them with the basic knowledge and skills in pastoral care, counselling and career guidance to help them make optimum use of their "Contact Time" with pupils under their care : -

Module 1	Introduction to Pastoral Care and Career Guidance in schools
Module 2	Basic Skills in Tutoring and Group Guidance
Module 3	Basic Skills in Pastoral Casework

While providing basic training required for the front-line care-givers in the schools, these foundation courses also form the pre-requisites for teachers who wish to proceed to higher levels of training.

Level Two courses are designed to provide both breadth and depth in the training of "specialists" teachers who are expected to provide leadership in planning and implementing guidance and counselling programmes in the schools. Thus there are both core courses and electives to equip the teachers with managerial skills, programme development skills as well as counselling skills: -

Module 4	Implementing Career Guidance in Schools (Core Course)
Module 5	Developing and Implementing a Pastoral Curriculum (Core Course)
Module 6	Managing Pastoral Systems (Elective)
Module 7	Advanced Skills in Pastoral Casework (Elective)
Module 8	Advanced Skills in Group Counselling (Elective)

Level Three courses are intended to give advanced and in-depth training to pastoral leaders or specialist teachers in schools with a special focus on evaluation, research and development. They also prepare these specialist teachers for supervisory positions in the pastoral care setup in their respective schools : -

Module 9	Assessment and Evaluation in Pastoral Care, Counselling and Career Guidance (Core course)
Module 10	Research and Development in Pastoral Care, Counselling and Career Guidance (Elective)
Module 11	Theories and Issues in Counselling (Elective)

Upon successful completion of (a) three pre-requisite courses at Level One, (b) two core courses and one elective at Level Two and (c) one core course and one elective at Level Three, the teachers will have completed 8 modules of 30 hours each, totaling 240 hours of training. In addition to this, they would also have completed a considerable amount of practicum through practical work conducted in the schools. Only then will they be awarded a Specialist Diploma in Education.

Innovative Approaches in Training

In order to meet the challenge of training a great number of teacher counsellors to function at different levels within a short period of time, we at the Institute of Education have in the past two years experimented with two non-traditional approaches along side the conventional method of in-service training.

Since Pastoral care and Career Guidance in the Singapore context adopts the "whole-school" approach involving all the teachers, we decided that the most effective method in preparing the teachers was to conduct school-based in-service courses for them school by school. Thus instead of the teachers coming to the Institute for their classes, the lecturers go to the school to conduct weekly training sessions for the whole teaching staff. Such an approach has three advantages. Firstly, this is one way to train many generalists in a short time. To date about 900 teachers from the 29 pilot schools have undergone basic training in this manner. Secondly, this approach allows teachers from the same school to get together to share experiences and to engage in problem-solving in issues pertaining to their particular school. Thirdly, such involvement of the total staff is an effective way of creating a caring environment and a school ethos that is conducive to the implementation of pastoral care and career guidance.

In addition to school-based in-service courses, we also conduct what are known as campus-based School-focused in-service courses. This means 2 to 4 schools can send their staff to form a cohort and the classes will be conducted on campus. Such an approach allows 50 to 100 teachers to undergo training at one time. The format of training includes mass lectures for the whole cohort to be followed by workshops in smaller groups led by a team of lecturers. In the workshops, the grouping of teachers is according to the school they come from so that discussions at the workshop level can be school-focused. We have found that this is a good way to cover several schools at one time. To date about 300 teachers from 8 secondary schools have undergone this format of training.

To cater to the needs of the non-pilot schools that wish to send only a handful of key teachers to be trained, we also continue with the traditional format of campus-based training courses for which enrollment is open to all teachers from both primary and secondary schools. Thus a class of 30 often comprise of teachers coming from 15 to 20 schools. The advantage of such an approach is that it allows teachers from many different schools to interact and share professional views as well as discuss practical problems, in this way obtaining mutual support and mutual help. In the past two years more than 500 teachers have participated in this form of in-service training.

Regardless of the format of training, course work comprises lectures followed by hands-on learning through group discussion and workshop activities. As the emphasis in training is on experiential learning, there is much opportunity for micro-counselling sessions. Two approaches are used in the training and supervision of counselling skills. The first is an adaptation of the Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR) method developed by Kagan and his associates (Kagan & Krathwohl, 1967). The second is the "Psychobehavioural" approach of Boyd (Boyd, 1978). As described by Russell et al, the first approach involves four steps -(1) the trainee conducts a videotaped or audio-taped 30-minute counselling interview with a volunteer client; (2) following this the counsellor leaves the interview room and is replaced by the supervisor who conducts a recall session with the client; (3) an audiotape of the recall session is then reviewed by the trainee following a written guideline directing his attention to certain aspects of the recall session and (4) the supervisor and trainee meet for a half-hour supervision session. The Psychobehavioural approach offers a rudimentary stage theory of supervision that outlines typical supervisee needs as a function of counselling experience. In the initial stage of prepracticum, the goal of supervision is to reduce supervisee anxiety and teach basic interviewing and communication skills. The intermediate stage, or supervised practicum focusses on awareness of dynamics and further skill development. The terminal stage is reached when the trainee is functioning at such a level that structured supervision is no longer required (Russell, Crimmings and Lent, 1984). The usefulness of counsellor recall in counsellor training is reviewed and evaluated by Gardner and his associates in a research report. They concluded that the usefulness of such an approach depends on (a) the accuracy of counsellor recall statements and (b) the relevance of counsellor recall statements. (Gardner, White, Packard & Wampold, 1988).

To sum up the training situation in the past two years, we at the Institute of Education have conducted basic training in developmental guidance for 1399 secondary school teachers and 312 primary school teachers as follows :

Table 2 Number of Trained Teachers

Type of Training	No. Trained		Total
	(sec.)	(Pri.)	
School-based	904		
I.E. based school-focussed	240		
Open Enrollment	255	312	1711
	1399	312	1711

Of these 1711 teachers, 1679 have been trained as frontline guidance teachers (generalists) while 32 are still being trained as teacher counsellors (specialists).

Effectiveness of the Training Programmes

To evaluate the effectiveness of the training and to ascertain the extent to which the teachers are able to put into practice what they have learned in the in-service courses, the participants are followed up three to six months after completion of their training. This is usually done through a survey using either the questionnaire or the interview method.

One such follow-up study was conducted in December 1988 with a sample of 100 teachers from 10 secondary schools. The results of this follow-up study showed that at least 75% of the respondents were able to apply the knowledge gained to understand their pupils better. They had also put their newly acquired group guidance and counselling skills to good use. When asked if they had the opportunity to develop pastoral curriculum for use in their schools, about 50% answered in the affirmative. More than half of the teachers had been able to share their knowledge with their colleagues. Lastly, 80% of the teachers indicated that they had benefited from the training and would strongly recommend the course to their fellow teachers.

Another method of obtaining feedback is through informal meetings with principals and key teachers to obtain their views on the effectiveness of the training programme as measured by the level of functioning of the trained teachers. One such meeting was held at the Institute in October 1988. On the whole feedback from the principals present had been both positive and encouraging. They felt that their teachers had benefited from the course. They also spoke enthusiastically in favour of the school- based approach in in-service training, pointing out that this approach has the advantage of involving practically the whole teaching staff of the school, including the principal, and is therefore an effective way of promoting a conducive school environment to facilitate a whole-school approach in implementing developmental guidance programmes in schools.

Problems Related to Training

Although our training courses have been met with much positive and enthusiastic response from the schools and the teachers, as in any new endeavour, we also have our share of teething problems.

The first of these is related to the motivation of the teachers. While we have had the benefit of having many enthusiastic and highly motivated teachers participating in the training, there is still the minority of teachers who are sent by their principals rather than enrolling in the classes on their own accord. The result is a luke-warm attitude and half-hearted involvement in the lectures and workshops. This problem seemed to occur more often with the school-based in-service courses where the whole teaching staff of the school are expected to participate in the training, regardless whether they subscribe to the concept of Pastoral Care and Career Guidance or not. This is especially true in cases where the principal is keen to implement guidance programes in the school but his teachers do not share the same vision and enthusiasm.

The second problem is related to the resistance to change found amongst a number of teachers and a few principals. When this occurs, the principals and teachers pay lip service to any suggestion on our part to try out new ideas but do not follow them through. The outcome is lack of support for their colleagues who are eager to test out the new skills learned. Lacking the moral support from their principals and colleagues, these enthusiastic teachers end up being frustrated and disillusioned.

Having learned from these experiences, we have come to the realization that if we want the training to be successful, it is imperative to involve the principals and administrators in the schools from the very beginning. Being leaders in the schools, they are the people who set the pace and provide the necessary support for the teachers in the implementation phase.

Looking Ahead to the 21st Century

Looking back to the past two years in the education scene in Singapore, we are happy to note a fundamental shift in the educational priorities with respect to the need for guidance and counselling in schools. The pilot scheme in Pastoral Care and Career Guidance with the 29 secondary schools has proven to be a success. Much encouraged, the Education authorities have decided to phase in the remaining 100 secondary schools within the next five years. This means that by 1995, developmental guidance and pupil counselling will be a regular feature built into the school system in Singapore. After that the programme will be introduced to the 240 primary schools in the nation.

While policy makers are finally ready to recognize the importance of guidance and counselling, the scenario in the schools is also supportive and conducive for the implementation of guidance programmes. Principals are keen to start, teachers are on the whole willing to take on the added responsibilities, parents are interested and public awareness has been heightened.

For us at the Institute of Education, the task ahead is a challenging one and we are prepared to take up this challenge with a three-pronged approach :

a) Conducting carefully planned and comprehensive training programmes to equip the teachers in both knowledge and skills of guidance and counselling.

b) Taking the initiative in developing resource materials to facilitate the implementation of guidance and counselling in schools

c) Providing the leadership in spearheading research studies and school-based projects to investigate the various aspects of school guidance and to evaluate the effectiveness of guidance and counselling programmes.

The training efforts I have described in this paper is but a humble start. However, with the little experience that we have gained so far and learning from the expertise of our counterparts in other countries, we are determined to press on and look forward to further challenges in the years to come.

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The Effectiveness of Two Approaches of Career Self-Concept Enhancement for Lower Secondary School Pupils

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1. Introduction

This study used the quasi-experimental research design to measure the effectiveness of group guidance and individual guidance approaches to enhance pupils' career self-concept. The treatment (enhancement process) was carried out by trained personnel using a new package of career guidance activities for nine sessions during the July term in 1988.

The career guidance package, the training of personnel, the validation of career self-concept instrument, as well as the research design, implementation and evaluation were the tasks achieved by the team which investigated the research question : "How effective is the use of non-traditional approaches, including non-traditional personnel and technologies, in developmental career guidance?". The team is part of the seventh research project of the Educational Research Unit, Institute of Education, Singapore. The project leader was Dr Esther Tan, the members of this team were Dr Lui Hah Wah Elena (leader), Miss Vilma D'Rozario, Mr Lee Tiong Peng, Miss Cindy Prowse, Mrs Katherine Yip and Mr Peter Khor.

2. The Sample

The target population of this study was the lower-secondary school pupils in Singapore. The rationales for confining the study to secondary 1 and 2 pupils were: (1) the training packages focused on the development of career self-concept which, according to vocational psychologists, is a major developmental task at the early stage of adolescence; (2) at the beginning of secondary school pupils should start their discovery of the world of work, and (3) this package should help build a good foundation for the pupils' career development before they are "streamed" into the science, arts or commerce courses.

For group guidance, the sample size of each group was 16 at each level of Sec 1 and Sec 2. For individual guidance, 8 pupils from each level were selected. There were equal numbers of both sexes in all sample groups.

The control groups had equal size of sample (N=16) at each level in the same school as well as in another school. ABC Secondary School was chosen to be the pilot school because of the strong support from the principal and also the lower secondary population was "uncontaminated" in terms of career guidance activities. XYZ Secondary School was selected for the control groups because the student sample matched that of ABC Secondary School in terms of having limited exposure to career guidance.

The distribution of pupils and teachers in the sample for experimental experience is stated in Table 1.

Table 1: Sampling Design & Approaches Adopted for Experimental Groups

Level / Personnel Involved			
	Sec 1	Sec 2	Total
Group Guidance	1 Teacher 16 Pupils (8 Boys & 8 Girls)	1 Teacher 16 Pupils (8 Boys & 8 Girls)	2 Teachers 32 Pupils
Individual Guidance	2 Teachers 8 Pupils (4 Boys & 4 Girls)	2 Teachers 8 Pupils (4 Boys & 4 Girls)	4 Teachers 16 Pupils
Total	3 Teachers 24 Pupils	3 Teachers 24 Pupils	6 Teachers 48 Pupils

3. Procedures

From February to May, 1988, the team developed a career guidance package of 9 sessions of career self-concept enhancement activities for lower secondary school pupils. The title of this package is "Me and My Future - A Career Workbook".* The theoretical framework was based on Donald Super's Developmental Self-Concept Theory (U.S.), while the structuring of the package adopted the approach of the Career Research and Advisory Council Breakout series (U.K.)

In July 1988, two team members and the project leader took turns to conduct three training sessions for the six research associates in ABC Secondary School. These research associates were the teachers recommended by their principal based on two criteria, i.e. (1) they had a genuine interest in career guidance, and (2) they were keen to participate in this study.

From July 29 to October 7, nine sessions of the career guidance package were conducted by these six research associates. The team members also took turns to observe the group guidance sessions which usually took place on Fridays during the school's community singing hour. This time slot was chosen to avoid any interruption during curriculum time.

4. Instrumentation

The treatment effect was measured by the 25-item force-choice "Career Self-Concept Checklist" developed by this team in April - May, 1988. The original design had a total of 30 items, 6 items for each subscale: Values, Aptitude, Myself, Interest and Parents. After the pilot test (administered to a sample of 100 lower secondary school pupils), the team decided to drop 5 weak items and keep the length of the test to 25 items. The maximum possible scores is 25 and the minimum is 0. The reliability of the checklist in the pilot test was acceptable as the KR 20 of the total scale was 0.77.

In mid July, 1988 the pretest was administered to 130 pupils of secondary one and two classes at ABC Secondary School and to the same number of pupils at XYZ Secondary School. The results showed that this instrument had acceptable reliability (KR 20 = 0.76). The total scale and subscales' correlations ranged from 0.36 to 0.81. Most of the 25 items' discrimination power was above 0.20. The range was from 0.04 to 0.57.

The post-test was conducted with the same samples in mid October, 1988. The number was reduced to 257 because of three pupils' absence. The test results showed similar features as the pre-test, with increases of reliabilities of the total scale (KR 20 = 0.82). The concurrent validity was tested by also administering a locally validated instrument for lower secondary pupils, "Self-Esteem Checklist" (LUI), at the same time to the control group samples. The correlation coefficient was relatively high (r = 0.54). Thus the concurrent validity was established.

Generally speaking, the Career Self-Concept Checklist has shown acceptable reliability and validity in the measurement of lower secondary pupils' career self-concept. The main features of the instrument in the pre-test and post-test also remained consistent.

5. Results

The pre and post tests method was used to measure the treatment effects of the career guidance sessions. The comparison of pre-test and post-test results showed that the total sample of experimental groups (N=32) had a statistically significant gain of mean score of 3.32. The t-test value is 4.57 ($P< 0.001$). When the outcomes of pre and post tests of the control groups were compared, there was no significant gain in mean scores. (Table 2).

Further investigation of treatment effects on the two experimental sub-groups (ABC's Sec 1 and Sec 2 pupils), indicated that both sub-groups had significant gains of mean scores, at 0.01 level. Sec 1 gained 3.69 points (t=3.28) while Sec 2 gained 2.94 points (t=3.12). (Table 3)

The measure of treatment effect for the 16 individual guidance samples showed that there was also a significant gain of 4.81 points in the post-test mean score, (t=4.73, $P< 0.001$) (Table 4).

Table 2: Comparison of Pre & Post-test Mean Scores (Group Guidance)

Group	N	Pre-test Mean	Pre-test S.D.	Post-test Mean	Post-test S.D.	Mean Scores Differences	t
Experimental (ABC)	32	15.34	3.63	18.66	4.34	3.32	4.57*
Control (ABC)	32	16.25	4.68	17.13	4.13	0.88	1.30
Control (XYZ)	32	15.75	4.04	16.94	4.56	1.19	2.20

* $P < 0.001$

Table 3: Comparisons of Pre & Post-test Meam Scores of Experimental Groups (Comparison by Level)

Experimental Group	N	Pre-test Mean	S.D.	Post-test Mean	S.D.	Mean Scores Differences	t
Secondary 1	16	16.31	3.11	20.00	4.50	3.69	3.28*
Secondary 2	16	14.38	3.95	17.31	3.90	2.94	3.12*

* P < 0.01

Table 4: Comparison of Pre & Post-test Mean Scores of Experimental Groups (Comparison by Apporach)

Treatment Approch	N	Pre-test Mean	S.D.	Pro-test Mean	S.D.	Mean Scores Differences	t
Group Guidance	32	15.34	3.63	18.66	4.34	3.32	4.57*
Individual Guidance	16	15.75	4.68	20.56	3.33	4.81	4.73*

* P < 0.001

The effect size of group guidance of the experimental group as compared to that of the control group at ABC Secondary School is 0.36. (Table 5A). When compared with the control group at XYZ Secondary School, the effect size is 0.38, very close to the effect size of the ABC sample. (Table 5B)

Table 5A: Effects of Group Guidance Treatment (ABC vs. ABC)

Experimental Group Guidance	Post Test		Control Group	Post Test		Effect Size
	$\bar{X}e$	SDe		$\bar{X}c$	SDc	
ABC	18.66	4.34	ABC	17.13	4.31	0.36

Table 5B: Effects of Group Guidance Treatment (ABC vs. XYZ)

Experimental Group Guidance	Post Test		Control Group	Post Test		Effect Size
	$\bar{X}e$	SDe		$\bar{X}c$	SDc	
ABC	18.66	4.34	XYZ	16.94	4.56	0.38

Note : Effect Size = ($\bar{X}e$ - $\bar{X}c$) / SDc

The effect size of individual guidance of the experimental samples as compared to that of the control samples at the ABC Secondary School is 0.40 (Table 6A). This is quite comparable with the findings of the group guidance approach with the ABC groups (0.36). However, the effect size of individual guidance of the ABC samples as compared to that of the XYZ Secondary School samples is unexpectedly great, 0.96.

Table 6A: Effects of Individual Guidance Treatment (ABC vs ABC)

Experimental Individual Guidance	Post Test		Control Group	Post Test		Effect Size
	$\bar{X}e$	SDe		$\bar{X}c$	SDc	
ABC	20.56	3.33	ABC	18.31	5.65	0.40

Table 6B: Effects of Individual Guidance Treatment (ABC vs XYZ)

Experimental Individual Guidance	Post Test		Control Group	Post Test		Effect Size
	$\bar{X}e$	SDe		$\bar{X}c$	SDc	
ABC	20.56	3.33	XYZ	16.75	3.99	0.96

The comparison of mean scores differences of the pre and post tests showed that the individual guidance samples in ABC Secondary School had a gain of 4.81 points (t=4.73 P<0.001), the control samples in ABC Secondary School gained 1.44 (t=0.81, n.s.) and the control samples in XYZ Secondary School gained merely 0.88 (t=1.09, n.s.). (Table 7). The small gain of mean scores and relatively small standard deviation of the post-test (SDc = 3.99) in the XYZ samples could explain why the effect size is so great when the mean scores gains of the ABC experimental samples and XYZ control samples were compared.

Table 7: Comparison of Pre & Post-test Mean Scores (Individual Guidance)

Sample	N	Pre-test		Post-test		Mean Scores Differences	t
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Experimental (ABC)	16	15.75	4.68	20.56	3.33	4.81	4.73*
Control (ABC)	16	16.87	4.80	18.31	5.65	1.44	0.81
Control (XYZ)	16	15.88	4.06	16.75	3.99	0.88	1.09

* P < 0.001

6. Evaluation of the Career Guidance Package

In addition to the above-mentioned measurement of treatment effects, the team also adopted a three-pronged approach to evaluate the career guidance package, "Me and My Future - A Career Guidebook".* The three methods of evaluation were:

1)interviews with all the six teachers (research associates) who used the package for the group guidance or individual guidance sessions,

2)interviews with 50% of the pupils in the experimental group sample (by random selection) and

3)assessment of the pupils' files (written work and artwork), also by random selection.

Due to time constraint at the school and the heavy workload of the team members, the evaluation of pupils' responses and performance could cover only half of the samples.

Generally speaking, the career guidance package has received very favourable responses from its users (teachers and pupils) in this study. Yet there is still room for improvement in the various areas, e.g. more guidelines for teachers, more provision for group interaction, more information on the world of work, etc. Although it was meaningful to involve the parents, the pupils need more preparation and guidance in talking to their parents on the topic of career planning. Teachers too, would need more training in this particular area.

7. Conclusion & Recommendation

The team's main task was to investigate the effectiveness of a career guidance package designed to enhance the career self-concept of lower secondary school pupils. The outcomes of this study showed that the package was effective in group guidance, the total sample's (N=32) gain in mean scores was statistically significant. The gain of mean scores in both Sec 1 and Sec 2 groups were significant. As for. the control groups, there were no significant differences of mean scores in both the ABC Secondary School and XYZ Secondary School groups.

The treatment effect of individual guidance (N=16) using the package also was statistically significant. The mean scores difference in the pre and post tests, was a gain of 4.81 points which is slightly greater than the mean scores difference of 3.32 in the group guidance samples (N=32). As for all the control samples, there were no significant differences of mean scores at all.

On the whole, the pilot test of the package on the enhancement of Career Self-Concept has proven its effectiveness to a certain extent. The process of conducting this study, including the development of the Career Self-Concept package and the Career Self-Concept Checklist, was really a very valuable research experience for the team members and research associates. Furthermore, the pupils involved in the piloting of the package have benefitted, in various degrees, in enhancing their career self-awareness as well as career maturity.

There were significant increases of mean scores in all the experimental samples in both approaches in this quasi- experimental study. This is encouraging for educational researchers who are interested in the development of non- traditional methods, resource materials, technologies and personnel in career guidance and related fields.

If manpower and funds are available, one possible follow-up action to this project could be further refinement of the work sheets based on feedback obtained. The team could also work on a Teacher's Guide and include "warm up" exercises for all the sessions. Having done this, the resource materials could then be compiled into a comprehensive training package and made available for use in the schools.

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TRAINING GERONTOLOGICAL COUNSELORS FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

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In industrialized nations, the adult years today comprise about three-fourths of the average person's lifespan, with old age comprising about one-fourth of that lifespan. Unfortunately, counselor preparation traditionally has been oriented toward the concerns of younger individuals. Only recently have attempts been made to address the needs of adults in counselor preparation programs. Clearly, as the population of the world ages, it is time for significant change in counselors' pre-service preparation. Factors which are suggestive of a need for change, as well as a model for changing counselor preparation, are discussed in this paper.

The Graying Population

The dramatic growth of the older population may be seen in U.S. population statistics. When America declared its independence in 1776, a mere 2% of the population or one in fifty persons (1:50) were aged 65+. That number had increased to only 4% (1:25) at the turn of this century. In 1980 older persons comprised more than 11% (1:9) of our population, and by 1985 more than 12% (1:8). Between 1980 and 1985 the over-65 population increased by 11% while that under 65 increased by only 4%. The trend is clear and is reflected in a rise in the median age from 23 in 1900 to 30 in 1980 (American Association of Retired Persons [AARP], 1986).

Americans are living longer, to the average age of 75 compared to only 47 in 1900. Women still are expected to live longer than men, 77 years compared to 73 years. Since older persons are survivors, statistics serve to remind us that the longer one lives the longer they may expect to live. In America, a woman who is 65 today may expect to live an additional 19 years while a 65 year old man can expect to live another 15 years (AARP, 1986).

The population aged 65 and over in other countries of the world has experienced similar growth patterns, particularly in industrialized nations. In 1990, the proportion of older persons in developed nations covers a broad range: Greece - 2.3%, Turkey - 4.0%, Iceland - 10.3%, New Zealand - 10.8%, Italy - 13.8%, United Kingdom - 15.1%, Germany - 15.5%, Norway - 16.2%, and Sweden - 17.7%.

Mental Health Needs of Older Persons

The high incidence of mental health needs among older persons is well documented (Butler & Lewis, 1983; President's Commission on Mental Health, 1978), both in the U.S. and world populations (North American Technical Congress on Aging, 1980). They include needs for preventive mental health care - such as preretirement counseling, and development/enhancement of life coping skills - as well as needs for remedial assistance to deal with significant problem areas (Johnson & Riker, 1982). Indeed, it has been estimated that at least 25% of all older persons have treatable mental health problems ranging from mild impairments to severe loss of functioning.

The multiple crises and losses which many older people experience create needs for significant adjustments at a time when resources to assist in coping may be seriously diminished or depleted. Most older people can, however, cope with stress and loss. Though emotional reactions can intensify and become debilitating when not treated, mental illness is not an irreversible part of the aging process (Lawrence, 1981). Mental health interventions can help to alleviate the normal stresses of aging. Research shows that a single confidant is the primary factor that mitigates against loss of life satisfaction and self-esteem in old age (Lowenthal & Haven, 1968). In the loss or absence of other social supports, this confidant could be a counselor - at least until other resources can be mobilized.

Existing mental health services for older persons have not met the demand. Older persons constitute over 12% of the U.S. population. For example, only 2-4% of persons seen in outpatient mental health clinics are older (Butler & Lewis 1983, Patterson, 1978). A recent study revealed that only 52% of state mental health offices report providing mental health clinic outpatient services specifically for older people (Myers, 1983b). A similar study of local mental health offices found that only 41% deliver such services (Flemming, Rickards, Santos & West, 1986). This situation persists in spite of federal legislation that mandates older persons as target populations for receipt of mental health services (e.g. P.L. 96-398, Mental Health Systems Act, preceded by P.L. 94-63, Community Mental Health Centers (CMHC) Act Amendments of 1975). The situation in other nations, where fewer mental health services are available, is even more critical.

While outpatient services are lacking, older persons are overrepresented in inpatient populations, both in the U.S. and throughout developed nations of the world. Over 60% of public mental hospital beds in America are occupied by older persons. More than 50% of those persons received no psychiatric care prior to admission. In other words, for more than half of all older persons hospitalized for mental health care, the hospital admission was their first contact with the mental health system. In many instances, preventive care or early intervention could have prevented more serious mental and emotional disorders.

It is difficult to determine the exact incidence of emotional disorders in older persons due to misdiagnosis, failure to seek mental health care, and family embarrassment leading to further failure to seek appropriate care. This is particularly evident in the case of suicide. For example, it is known that older persons, especially older white males, are at highest risk for suicide of any persons in the population (including adolescents). Although 25% of all reported suicides occur among older people, it is estimated that many more suicides occur but are not reported by families due to shame and guilt.

More than half of all older persons residing in U.S. long term care institutions (nursing homes) have "senility" as a primary diagnosis. yet, the term is overused to the point of being a misnomer. More than 100 temporary conditions mimic the symptoms of senility (e.g. confusion, disorientation), and if treated, these conditions are reversible. Dehydration, malnutrition, drug overdoses and interactions, and psychological stress are a few of the conditions known to "cause" symptoms of "senility" in frail older persons.

Depression, the most common mental health problem, increases in incidence with age. Estimates are that 25 to 65% of America's older persons experience depression of sufficient severity to warrant treatment. Again, access to treatment is limited.

Barriers to mental health services for older persons include inadequate training of mental health personnel to meet the needs of older people (U.S. Senate Special Committee on Aging, 1980). Myers and Blake (1984) noted that the deficiency in mental health services for older persons is primarily attributable to a shortage of trained personnel. Bias against older clients and lack of expectation for positive outcomes are additional reasons for underservice (Butler & Lewis, 1983). Clearly, more mental health care providers trained to meet the mental health needs of a variety of older persons are needed.

Current Status of Gerontological Counseling Specialization

The increasing numbers of older persons, combined with increased attention to their mental health needs, has stimulated interest in a specialty in gerontological counseling. Possible approaches to training in this specialty are varied. Many counselor preparation programs (about one-third of the 450+ programs nationwide) have chosen to develop a specialized course in counseling older persons. A few departments have developed more than one course, and at least one has three or more courses plus a practicum requirement to fulfill a programmatic specialization. Yet other departments have chosen to use existing gerontology courses on their respective campuses and suggest that students wishing to work with older persons should take those courses and apply their new knowledge within the counselor training program. Given this lack of a standardized approach to specialty training, it is not surprising to find few persons within the U.S. who can claim to be trained gerontological counselors. The lack of a set of training standards, nationally accepted statement of competencies, and a certification or registry process further emphasizes the lack of a clear specialization in this area.

On the other hand, even if abundant training programs were available to permit counselor trainees nationwide to specialize in work with older persons, it is doubtful that sufficient numbers of professionals could be trained and certified in the forseeable future to meet the growing mental health needs of an expanding older population. The need for such counselors will far exceed the supply. And relief is not in sight. Though counselors trained to work with older persons do, in fact, find jobs where older persons comprise a large portion of their clientele (Myers & Blake, 1984), there are still too few positions specifically designated as gerontological in nature. Counselors in all settings, however, encounter older persons with increasing frequency. These persons also may themselves be clients, or they may be relatives, neighbors, or friends of clients. Referral is not always possible or desirable. Since all counselors, regardless of setting, increasingly may expect to encounter older persons and their families as clients, another approach to training counselors is warranted.

An Infusion Model for Gerontological Counselor Training

It is imperative now, and in planning for an increasingly aging population, that **all** counselors be prepared to understand and work with persons across the lifespan. The most effective strategy to achieve this goal is through **infusion**. By **infusing** a unit on

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gerontological counseling into core counselor preparation curricular areas,counselor educators can assure that all counselors will graduate with some preparation to meet the needs of older clients.

In the U.S., accreditation of counseling training programs is assuring increasing consistency and quality of counselor preparation. Standards of the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) specify eight core curricular areas plus supervised field experiences which must be completed by all trainees. These eight core areas form the basis for the infusion model reported here (Myers, 1988; Sweeney & Myers, 1988). They include human growth and development, social and cultural foundations, helping relationships, groups, lifestyle and career development, appraisal, research and evaluation, and professional orientation.

To facilitate implementation of the infusion concept, we developed a model which includes a curriculum manual and accompanying videotapes for use in counselor preparation and in-service training. The manual includes curriculum modules, based on the core areas of the CACREP standards, for each of the core areas. Included are objectives for infusion, comprehenive yet succinct literature reviews relative to each objective, suggested counseling techniques, classroom activities, media resources, and lists of references.

The videotapes, based on the material in the curriculum modules, address counseling for older persons in five of the core areas (Sweeney & Myers, 1988). Examples of actual counseling sessions with older persons are used to illustrate the concepts presented. Various approaches to counseling with older persons, including early recollections and the use of life review therapy, are explained and demonstrated.

The curriculum modules and videotapes allow for presentation of a one to three hour unit on older persons within each of the core counselor preparation areas. The challenge in developing these materials was to find the optimum amount of information which (1) could be easily integrated into an existing course by a busy counselor educator with an already full curriculum, and (2) which would result in an entry level counselor, not specializing in gerontogical counseling, being prepared to work effectively and/or refer for needed services those older persons and their families whom they might encounter in the course of their work. We believe the materials, as they now exist, have met this challenge and will be useful in preparing counselors to assist older persons.

Conclusion

As the population of the world continues to age, counselors must be prepared to address the needs of all persons across the lifespan. The infusion model described here is an innovative approach to counselor training designed to assure that all counselors graduate prepared to recognize and help meet the counseling needs of older persons and their families. We believe that persons in other countries and in related disciplines could find the materials and the infusion model useful as well.

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